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THE INFLUENCE OFATTRIBUTE PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL, EMOTION AND TIME ON THE SATISFACTION RESPONSE OF GOLF TRAVELERS

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ABSTRACT

Golf travel has been shown to be a strong component of the economy for regions that rely on tourism for generating revenue (Flowers, 2006). As a reflection of the importance of this component of the tourism industry, researchers have examined the components of the golf travel experience (Petrick & Backman, 2002). One methods to examine the quality of the experiences is to examine variables such as perceived value (Hutchinson, Lai & Wang, in press), loyalty (Backman, 1991) and satisfaction (Petrick & Backman 2001, 2002b).

Consumer behavior research has looked at satisfaction as a gauge of the quality of the experience as well as a measure of potential for future behavior (Holbrook, 2006). Cognitive aspects of the experience (i.e., appraisal of attribute performance) have been used as a predictor of satisfaction through the comparison standards (CS) model (Fournier & Mick, 1999). However, a move away from the dominant CS model has begun by looking at experiential components of satisfaction (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). This move has prompted many researchers, such as Oliver (1993), to begin looking at affective components of the experience as a predictor of satisfaction. Currently, there is a lack of consensus definition of affect in marketing and consumer behavior contexts. Psychology literature defines affect as an overall state that includes other feelings such as mood and emotions. Some marketing researchers have used the label of affect to describe what psychology labels as emotion.

This study examined satisfaction as influenced both by the cognitive CS model as well as the feelings that result from a consumption experience. These feelings are defined

as emotions that are defined in psychology literature as short-term and targeted toward the experience. The purpose of this study was to examine a model of golf travelers' satisfaction focusing on the variables of attribute performance appraisal and consumption emotions. This study also addressed the influence of time on the relationships between attribute performance appraisal, emotion and satisfaction. The hypotheses of this study looked at the relationships between emotion, attribute performance and satisfaction both immediately following the consumption experience and 21-28 days later.

To test these hypotheses, respondents were recruited from golf courses in the southern tip of the Myrtle Beach/Grand Strand, South Carolina, region immediately following their round of golf. After screening for travelers (i.e., out-of-state and those staying in the region for less than six weeks) 480 surveys were collected on-site for Time One. Of these 114 completed the Time Two questionnaire which was collected online.

The results from the structural equation model and chi-square difference tests found that emotions do not range from positive to negative on a semantic differential scale; rather they comprise two dimensions, positive and negative, that interact separately with satisfaction. The strongest relationship at time one was between positive emotion and satisfaction. The strongest relationship at time two was between attribute performance appraisal and satisfaction. Negative emotion was found to have very little relationship with satisfaction at time one or time two. The strongest predictor of satisfaction at time two was satisfaction at time one. This relationship was found not to be mediated through emotion or attribute appraisal at time two.

The study shows that positive emotion has the biggest influence on feelings of satisfaction immediately following the experience, and that although there are some changes over time, satisfaction remains fairly static. The results suggest that the changes in satisfaction at time two occur from a “reappraisal” of the attributes.

DEDICATION

To my late grandfather, Kenneth Karl Krohn: after retiring from a career of labor in the steel mills of northwest Indiana, my grandfather took to golf. His method of play had little to do with the game itself; it was more about enjoying the day, the company of his companions and, of course, hunting for wayward golf balls. My first golf club was a putter from his collection of excess clubs. I've been hooked ever since.

To my parents Larry and Martha Krohn: I have been blessed beyond all imagination with supportive parents. There have been numerous conversations, several on the golf course with my dad, discussing the merits of returning to school, first for a Master's and then for my Ph.D. My decisions were always supported, encouraged and rejoiced. For that, I am extremely grateful.

To my wife, Mary: for more patience, support and love than anyone should ever be asked to give.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table of Contents (Continued) Page

Table of Contents (Continued) Page

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Satisfaction is one large area of consumer behavior research examining the outcomes of the experience for the individual. Both academic researchers and marketing managers view satisfaction as an important response to consumption. This importance has been demonstrated both in research and in practice (Yi, 1990) in that customers who experience higher levels of satisfaction are more likely to become repeat visitors. Although the importance of satisfaction is well documented, the literature lacks a clear consensus definition (E. W. Anderson & Fornell, 1994; Giese & Cote, 2000). One popular viewpoint in consumer research follows the definition offered by Hunt (1977): satisfaction is "an evaluation rendered that the experience was at least as good as it was supposed to be." This definition has several distinct parts. First, satisfaction comes after an experience. This experience can be with a product or service; in tourism it can be a destination or culture; and in sport it could be watching a contest or participating in an activity. Second, there needs to be some standard or expectation that represents what it "was supposed to be." Third, and most important, there has to be a comparison between the expectation and the actual experience. Westbrook and Oliver (1991) provide a definition that is most appropriate for the intentions of this study; satisfaction judgments originate as a post-experience comparison of the level of product or service performance or quality with some pre-conceived standard.

This is the basic premise for the widely accepted and utilized view: disconfirmation of satisfaction. If the product, service or experience falls short of

expectations, then the customer is dissatisfied (Hunt, 1991). Although there are several theories concerning the source and formation of these expectations (Yoon & Uysal, 2005), this is the basic premise that guides the majority of satisfaction research. Early research in expectancy comes from two psychological theories (Cardozo, 1965). First, contrast theory would state that if a product received was better than (or more valuable than) the product expected, then the response is positive; when the performance falls below expectations the response is negative. However, dissonance theory suggests that customers might justify their choice of product in negative situations by over-emphasizing positive to overcome the dissonance between the expected and received performance.

The comparison standards (CS) model is the primary focus of research in customer satisfaction (see Fournier & Mick, 1999). In an effort to further explain the satisfaction experience including reactions similar to those expected in dissonance theory, and to highlight the predictive expectations of attribute performance, the expectations-disconfirmation model was introduced (Boulding, Kalra, Staelin, & Zeithaml, 1993; Tse, Nicosia, & Wilton, 1990).

Currently, much of the satisfaction research falls under the heading of the CS model, or the updated customer satisfaction/ dissatisfaction (CS/D) model. These studies generally measure satisfaction performance of various attributes and/or overall satisfaction. However, there is evidence that satisfaction research is beginning to develop a new stream. Oliver's work with affective components of satisfaction prompted Phillips and Baumgartner (2002) to use positive and negative emotions in a structural equation

model using expectancies, perceived performance, disconfirmation and emotions as predictors of satisfaction. Similarly, Andrue et al. (2006) used positive emotions as a mediator effect between restaurant atmosphere and the satisfaction response.

Experiential Consumption

The shift from the cognition based CS/D model to a more affect-based model comes from the concept of experiential consumption presented by the work of Holbrook and Hirschman (1982). Following this seminal work, research in consumer behavior and marketing has seen an evolution from the concept of choice as rational evaluation such as expectancy-value theory (Atkinson, 1982) to less rational phenomena such as bounded rationality (March, 1978). Recent experiential research is more focused on post-choice evaluation, such as research on satisfaction, repurchase/revisit behavior, loyalty, etc., and the act of consumption.

The act of consumption can be seen as a combination of choice, expectations, and post-choice behaviors. Research often focuses on the perceived performance of concrete product attributes and their impacts on choice, consumption and satisfaction. The concept of experiential consumption includes not only concrete attributes but meanings, hedonic responses, fantasy, and emotive aspects of the consumption experience (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982).

Despite the natural relationship of recreation/tourism activities to hedonic experiences and experiential consumption (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982), little research has been done by tourism researchers examining experiential factors in the response to such consumption experiences. Tourism

consumption can be viewed as almost completely experiential, as the "product" is the authentic or aesthetic setting of the destination, which cannot be directly consumed or taken home (Ford & Blanchard, 1993). This leads to an alternative type of consumption, one that is arguably distinct to recreation and tourism (MacCannell, 2002; Voase, 1999) and is heavily reliant on the affective components of the experience. The calls for further research in experiential consumption from Holbrook and associates (Holbrook, Chestnut, Oliva, & Greenleaf, 1984; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982) can be appropriately carried out in this context.

Affect, Feelings and Emotions

The construct of affect is relatively new to the field of marketing and like any new construct, there lacks a consensus definition. This topic is further confused when similar terms such as feelings, emotions and moods are introduced. The primary source of confusion comes from the disagreements over the discrete boundaries between these constructs. Some researchers view affect as a synonym for feelings or emotions (Feldman-Barrett & Russell, 1999; Peterson, Hoyer, & Wilson, 1986; Russell & Feldman-Barrett, 1999), while other researchers have begun to push for a differentiation between such terms in light of empirical research that provides evidence of discrete constructs (Batra & Ray, 1986; Holbrook & Batra, 1987). Fiske and Taylor (1984) discuss theoretical differences in the terms and provide the framework that many authors have adopted in subsequent research (Aaker & Myers, 1987; Aaker, Stayman, & Vezina, 1988; Berkowitz, 2000; Power & Dalgleish, 1997).

Similar to these views, Fredrickson (2001) suggests that the consensus that is forming concerning the differentiation between affect and emotion is rooted in the assessment of personal meaning and therefore involves a cognitive reaction. Affect is described as a broader term that includes moods and feelings. As an important variation to the structure suggested above, the study suggests that there are interactions between affect and emotion. Positive affect can have an impact on emotion, and also emotion(s) can then influence mood and thus the overall positiveness of affect.

Summary definitions can be proposed reflecting this evolution in the affect literature. Emotions are generally more intense, directed at a target, and temporary. Feelings are less-target oriented and less intense whereas moods are enduring and have no specific target. Affect is the broad concept that includes all of these (Aaker & Myers, 1987; Batra & Ray, 1986; Holbrook & Batra, 1987). Following this somewhat hierarchal view, it might be possible to view affect as the net state (positive, negative or a combination of both) after taking into account for the full range of emotion, moods and feelings at any given time.

Satisfaction, Affect and Phases of Experience

Research of the recreation experience has been found to be comprised of multiple phases that include the planning, travel to, on-site, travel from, and reflection stages (Borrie & Roggenbuck, 2001; Hammitt, 1980). Much of the post-consumption behavior research has been conducted in the reflective phase of the experience. However, if these experiences are highly affective as described by Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), the

appropriateness of measuring short-lived components such as emotion in the reflective stage are called into question.

When examining the methodology of satisfaction studies, it is apparent that the primary focus of the experience is in the reflection stage. This measure of satisfaction can be viewed as reflective satisfaction. A few studies have collected data during the onsite phase, and this measure of satisfaction is perhaps structurally different then satisfaction measured later and thus can be viewed as immediate satisfaction. However, there is a lack of research that takes into account the differences in the phases and the possible changes on the measurement of satisfaction. These changes include both affective and cognitive aspects (Oliver, 1997). Research on recall suggests that when reflecting on a consumption experience consumers are nearly twice as likely to rely upon the performance of individual attributes as upon the overall performance during the satisfaction response (Gardial, Clemons, Woodruff, Schumann, & Burns, 1994). There is a need to determine the temporal nature of attribute importance (Mittal, Kumar, & Tsiros, 1999), and the lasting effect of attribute performance (Mittal, Katrichis, & Kumar, 2001), as well as the changing effects of affect over time.

Justification for the Study (Problem Statement)

Research has suggested that feelings are a component of the satisfaction response, and a few studies have begun to integrate affect into the satisfaction model (Oliver, 1993; Phillips & Baumgartner, 2002). This research is an important step toward a deeper understanding of the antecedents and mechanisms of the satisfaction response.

The importance of satisfaction to the many disciplines that rely on customer response is an indication of the need for further research. The fields of recreation, tourism and sport rely heavily on the experiential nature of consumption. The unique characteristics that these feeling-based experiences provide highlight the natural integration of affective components into the consumer research in these areas. However, to date there has been little integration between the constructs of affect, emotions or feelings and the consumer behaviors in tourism.

There is also a need to move away from research involving the broad construct of affect that includes non-controllable feelings such as mood, and integrate emotions that are direct cognitive appraisals of the feelings elicited during an experience. Following the suggestions for further exploration of the concept of emotion in consumer behavior of Laros and Steenkamp (2005) and the call for expanded research on golf travelers as sub-set of tourism and sport tourism by Hutchinson, Lai and Wang (in press) along with Tassiopoulos and Haydam (2008), this research is intended address current issues in emotion and satisfaction research in the golf traveler context.

According to the Travel Industry Association of the United States (2008), domestic travel is an important component of the revenue generated in South Carolina. An estimated $9.7 billion dollars of travel-related revenue was generated in 2007. Golf travel-related expenditures account for approximately $.9 billion of the travel revenue in the state. In addition to accounting for nearly 10 percent of the South Carolina's travel revenue, there were 920,000 trips to the state that included golf. Horry County, South Carolina, was the destination of 57 percent of those golf-related trips (Flowers,2006).

Golf is a major driver of the economy in this region, which includes Myrtle Beach and much of the stretch of beach known as the Grand Strand.

Research in tourism and sport has taken notice of the importance of golf to the tourism industry, and many studies have been conducted at investigating the factors that influence the behavior of the golf traveler (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1998; Markwick, 2000; James F. Petrick, 2002a; Petrick & Backman, 2001; Petrick, Backman, & Bixler, 1999; Petrick, Backman, Bixler, & Norman, 2001; Priestley, 1995; Readman, 2003; Tassiopoulos & Haydam, 2008). Some of the variables that have been examined in this context include experience use history (James F. Petrick, 2002b; Petrick, et al., 2001), perceived value (Hutchinson, et al., in press; Petrick & Backman, 2001, 2002a; Petrick, et al., 1999), loyalty (Backman, 1991; Petrick & Backman, 2001, 2002a), novelty (James F. Petrick, 2002a) and satisfaction (Hutchinson, et al., in press; James F. Petrick, 2002b; Petrick & Backman, 2001, 2002b).

Tourism research has included satisfaction as a primary research topic. Frequently, these studies involve the hospitality aspect of tourism and are product or service based, such as satisfaction studies of hotels (Costa, Glinia, Goudas, & Panagiotis, 2004; Kim, Ma, & Kim, 2006; Manickas & Shea, 1997; Saleh, Ryan, Johnson, & Thomas, 1992; Wang & Wen, 2005); restaurants (Cheng, Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2005); or other hospitality services (Haber & Lerner, 1999). However, some researchers use satisfaction in leisure and recreation contexts of tourism studies. These involve satisfaction in conjunction with perceived quality (Petrick, 2004; Tian-Cole, Crompton, & Wilson, 2002; Woratschek, 2000); value (J. F. Petrick, 2002; Petrick, 2003; Petrick &

Backman, 2001; Petrick, et al., 1999); as well as other components. These studies use overall satisfaction as a variable and often use measures with an item similar to "how satisfied are you" on a Likert-type scale. Although satisfaction is a primary focus of these studies, only a few employ methods that measure expectancies in order to apply the CS/D model (Bowen, 2001). Tourism research should be advanced to identify aspects of the experience that influence satisfaction such as affective or attribute performance components.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine a model of golf travelers' satisfaction focusing on the variables of attribute performance appraisal and consumption emotions. This study also addressed the influence of time on the relationships between attribute performance appraisal, emotion and satisfaction.

The results from this study will extend the research on satisfaction using attributes and emotions by helping to identify which of these antecedents has a larger influence on the resulting satisfaction response. Satisfaction research is also typically done cross-sectionally, which suggests that satisfaction is static over time. This study will help to support research that investigates this change, and will provide information on the specifics of the changes.

The tourism and sport tourism fields will benefit from these results by gaining a better understanding of the relative importance of attributes and emotions play to the satisfaction response. This understanding can greatly impact managers' or marketers' decisions on resource allocation, planning and development.

Objectives

Following the above purpose of the study, there were three objectives for this study.

Objective 1: determine the extent that emotional and attribute appraisal influence satisfaction at time one and time two.

Objective 2: To determine if the strength of the relationships between emotional appraisal, attribute appraisal and immediate satisfaction at time one differ from the relationships between emotional appraisal, attribute appraisal and reflective satisfaction at time two.

Objective 3: To determine if the relationship between immediate satisfaction and reflective satisfaction is affected by the emotional appraisal and attribute appraisals at time two.

Delimitations

This study was subject to the following delimitations:

1. this study was delimited to visitors playing golf in the study area;
2. various other situational factors were not considered (i.e. season in which data will be collected;

3. the model tested in this study was not intended to be a complete look at all influences on satisfaction formation, rather a specific look at the construct of emotion;
4. certain demographic factors could not be considered as possible mediators (i.e. gender cannot be assessed due to the low number of female respondents).

Definitions

Satisfaction judgments originate as a post-experience comparison of the level of product or service performance or quality with some pre-conceived standard (Westbrook & Oliver, 1981).

Immediate Satisfaction refers to the satisfaction response that forms immediately following the sport consumption experience. In this study, immediate satisfaction specifically refers to the satisfaction that is formed between the conclusion of the round of golf and when individual leaves the golf course.

Reflective Satisfaction refers to the satisfaction response that forms after some time has passed after the conclusion of the sport experience. For this study, the time frame will be three to four weeks.

Emotional appraisal refers to the act of reflecting on (appraising) the emotions of the consumption event and responding to the survey items concerning the specific emotion adjectives developed by Richins (1997).

Attribute appraisal refers to the act of reflecting on the performance of specific attributes that one interacts with during the consumption experience. The specific attributes that were considered in this study come from the

research of Faircloth and Richard (Faircloth, Richard, & Richard, 1995; Richard & Faircloth, 1994)

Affect is a general term that includes the responses of feelings, emotions and moods. Affect is generally viewed on a valianced scale from positive to negative. It might be possible to view affect as the net state (positive, negative or a combination of both) after taking into account for the full range of emotion, moods and feelings at any given time.

Emotions are complex reactions to stimuli that often result in physical manifestations that can be categorized into discrete groups of basic emotions. Emotions are object-directed, intense and generally short in duration.

Feelings are the subjective, temporary reactions that result from conscious evaluations of stimuli that may or may not have a clear object.

Moods are combinations of feelings that when compared to emotions are less intense, longer lasting, and are less targeted in directed. Moods also tend to have a greater influence on behavior over the long term.

Golf travelers are the individuals age 18 and older who completed a round of golf at one of the data collection sites. For this study, travelers are limited to individuals who are not residents of South Carolina and who stay in Myrtle Beach for less than six weeks.

Constrained model is a statistical term that refers to the method of statistical analysis for the first four hypotheses. Specific model paths are constrained to be equivalent,

thus allowing a comparison between the fit of the constrained model against the fit of the unconstrained model.

Organization of this Dissertation

This dissertation is organized into eight chapters. Chapter One serves as the introduction and justification for the study. Chapter Two contains a summary of the literature review of studies related to the topic of this dissertation. Chapter Three presents the conceptual model that was tested. Chapter Four presents the methods used for this study and Chapter Five presents the descriptive results. Chapter Six contains the report of data screening and preparation. Chapter Seven then presents the results from the hypothesis tests and Chapter Eight presents the discussion and implications.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The following discussion is intended to identify and summarize the literature that is most pertinent to the topic of this research. This chapter will summarize research on satisfaction, affect (including moods and emotions) and attribute performance, including the ways in which they have been measured. The final section will outline where there are gaps in this research that need to be addressed.

Satisfaction Research

Research involving satisfaction in the field of consumer behavior has seen a large increase over the past several decades. This attention represents the relative importance of the topic. Yi (1990) states that satisfaction has become one of the most central topics in all of marketing research and practice. Satisfaction has become an everyday term for individuals in modern consumptive society. Although consumer satisfaction has been a widely used and researched topic, there is currently no consensus on a definition (E. W. Anderson & Fornell, 1994; Czepiel & Rosenberg, 1977; Giese & Cote, 2000; C. White & Yu, 2005). Yi (1990) summarizes the definitions as referring to either an outcome or a process. Some refer to a "cognitive state of being" following the consumption experience, and others refer to the response. Interestingly, these definitions differ not only in this way; but as some refer to a cognitive state, others such as Westbrook and Reilly (1983) suggest satisfaction is an emotional response.

One definition of satisfaction was offered by Hunt (1977), " an evaluation rendered that the experience was at least as good as it was supposed to be" along with similar definitions of others (e.g. Tse & Wilton, 1988), represents the common understanding. If a consumer receives what is expected, be it product, service or experience, then the consumer is satisfied. However, if the product, service or experience falls short of expectations, then the consumer is dissatisfied (Hunt, 1991). Consumers develop expectations of what is "supposed to be" part of the consumption experience (Oliver, 1980). These expectations may come from comparison of similar products/experiences, comparison with what other people's experience, experience-based norms, or perceived value (Yi, 1990). This general understanding has formed the expectancy theory of satisfaction within the consumer behavior literature.

Expectancy theory of satisfaction has a long history and has become the common understanding for customer satisfaction. Early research in expectancy comes from two psychological theories (Cardozo, 1965). First, contrast theory would state that is a product received was better than (or more valuable than) the product expected, then the response is positive and vice versa. This theory has evolved into the expectation-performance approach (Kozak, 2000) and has been applied several times in tourism research (Kozak, 2003). The second theory, cognitive dissonance theory or assimilation-contrast theory, suggests that customers might justify their choice of product in negative situations by over-emphasizing positive to overcome the dissonance between the expected and received performance; or if the discrepancy is large, the consumer might alter which expectations might be used for the comparison (Williams, 1989). In an

effort to further explain satisfaction experience that includes reactions similar to those expected in dissonance theory and to highlight the predictive expectations of attribute performance, the expectations-disconfirmation model was introduced (Boulding, et al., 1993; Tse, et al., 1990) and had been supported in previous empirical research.

Anderson and Fornell (1994) suggest that definitions of satisfaction are either brand-specific or transaction-specific. A transaction-specific view comes from a post-choice evaluative judgment, whereas brand-specific is an overall evaluation with repeated experiences with a product or brand. For the purpose of this paper and in the review that follows, the transaction specific-perspective will be of primary interest.

The definition in use for this study most closely mirrors the post-consumption evaluative judgment as presented by Westbrook and Oliver (1991). This approach is intended to isolate the construct of satisfaction from other constructs such as attitude which is a pre-decision construct that fails to relate directly to the consumption experience itself (LaTour & Peat, 1979).

Yoon and Usyal (2005) identified four major theories of expectation formation: expectation/disconfirmation (e.g. Oliver, 1980); equity (e.g.Oliver & Swan, 1989); norms (e.g.Cadotte, Woodruff, & Jenkins, 1987); and perceive overall performance (e.g.Tse & Wilton, 1988). They then used four items to measure satisfaction of a tourist destination based on these theories (one item each). They found that expectations, equity and norms were significant predictors of satisfaction. The main emphasis of this study was a comparison of push and pull motivations to satisfaction and destination loyalty, but not a review of satisfaction measures. However, these results suggest that the expectations for

satisfaction comparison come from multiple sources and thus research should be limited to a single type of expectation formation.

Tourism research using satisfaction most frequently involves the hospitality aspect of tourism as a product or service, such as studies of hotels (Costa, Glinia, Goudas, & Panagiotis, 2004; Kim, Ma, & Kim, 2006; Manickas & Shea, 1997; Saleh & Ryan, 1992; Wang & Wen, 2005), restaurants (Cheng, et al., 2005) or other hospitality services (Haber & Lerner, 1999).

A handful of researchers have used satisfaction within the leisure and recreational aspects of tourism. These studies often involve satisfaction in conjunction with perceived quality (Petrick, 2004; Tian-Cole, et al., 2002; Woratschek, 2000) value (J. F. Petrick, 2002; Petrick, 2003; Petrick & Backman, 2001; Petrick, et al., 1999) as well as other components. The majority of these studies are intended to use overall satisfaction as a variable in the study and often use measures similar to "how satisfied are you" on a Likert-type scale. There are but a few examples of studies within tourism that employ methods that measure expectancies in order to apply the CS/D model (Bowen, 2001). The application of satisfaction within tourism research should be advanced to identify what aspects of the experience influence various components of satisfaction (e.g., affective, attributional, or other types of satisfaction).

One closely-related study within the sport spectator literature involving satisfaction comes from Madrigal (1995). In this study, affect (operationalized as positive affect/enjoyment) and basking in reflected glory were identified as mediating effects between the independent variables of expectancy, team identification and opponent

quality and the dependent variable of satisfaction. Their results indicate the importance of affect as a mediating effect on spectator satisfaction.

Kozak (2000) summarizes toursim research in consumer satisfaction from four basic approaches; expectation-performance approach, importance-performance approach, disconfirmation approach and performance only approach. Table 1 is adapted from the summary of Kozak (2003) with the addition of the type of satisfaction measure used.

TABLE 2.1 – Review of Tourism Research Using Satisfaction

Authors	*Approach used*	*Summary Questions*
(Danaher & Arweiler, 1996)	Disconfirmation; performance only	Overall Satisfaction – single item 11 point sat./dissat. Intention to recommend – Attribute Performance - 3 point better worse
(Cho, 1998)	Disconfirmation	Overall satisfaction- Single item 7 point Intention to recommend – single item 7 point Intention to return – single item 7 point Attribute performance – 7 point better/worse
(Pizam, Neumann, & Reichel, 1978)	Performance only	
(Chon & Olsen, 1991)	Expectation performance	
(Qu & Li, 1997)	Performance only	Intention to return Attribute performance – 5 point agree/disagree
(Weber, 1997)	Expectation performance	Overall satisfaction
(Pizam & Milman, 1993)	Expectation performance	Overall satisfaction
(Kozak & Rimmington, 2000)	Performance only	Overall satisfaction – 7 point delighted/terrible *and* 5 point better worse, Intention to return – 7 point definitely/not likely Intention to recommend 7 point definitely/not likely Attribute performance – 7 point delighted/terrible

Adapted from Kozak (2003)

Attributes in Satisfaction Research

When determining how to best influence a consumer's satisfaction level, researchers have frequently relied on specific attributes of the product or service. The key is to identify the various attributes that are most important, then ascertain how performance will impact overall satisfaction (Mittal, et al., 2001). Thus the influence of individual attributes is referred as the attribute weight, which then used to develop correlates with overall satisfaction (Oliver, 1993). This importance has been well documented within satisfaction research, especially when applying the disconfirmation of expectancies approach. Gardial et al. (1994) found that consumers are nearly twice as likely to use the performance individual attributes in the development of satisfaction than the overall performance.

In order for consumers to compare the performance of one attribute to another within a single service experience, it is necessary use "satisfaction units" as opposed to "performance units" (Oliver, 1993). For example, tourists cannot compare the cleanliness of the hotel to the comfort of the bed in comparable measures. Instead, consumers might compare levels of satisfaction with the performance of each individual attribute when considering their overall satisfaction. Therefore, it seems appropriate that when predicting overall satisfaction from individual attributes, a relative form of performance measure be used.

One methods for discovering the weights of attributes is to use an importance scale. For example Uysal, Williams and Yoon (2003) asked respondents to rate the importance of each destination attribute on a 5-point Likert scale. The problem with

predicting satisfaction from an importance scale is a matter of definition. The importance scale used in this study is better suited to determine consumer preference, such as Perdue's (1995) study of visitor center preference. When judging the post consumption response of satisfaction, it is more appropriate to gauge the performance of such attributes.

It is imperative that researchers understand the conceptual differences between importance and performance. For example, Petrick, Backman and Bixler (1999) used importance measures of golf experience attributes differently than the measure of the serves and features' performance. The performance (measured on a 5-point "poor" to "almost perfect" scale) was used to predict overall satisfaction (measured on a 10-point extremely dissatisfied to extremely satisfied scale).

Some tourism studies have used importance-performance analysis (IPA) to gauge satisfaction and destination performance. IPA is based on a bi-dimensional graph with performance and importance as the axis. Studies such as O'Leary and Deegan (2005) and Tarrant and Smith (2002) have used IPA to measure estimate satisfaction with certain attributes of recreation and tourism settings. These studies analyze individual attributes and thus assume satisfaction exists when performance and expectations are both high; however they fail to measure actual satisfaction.

One use of satisfaction in recreation and tourism studies uses a single, global measure of satisfaction. Many of these studies use measures of various attributes as predictors of overall satisfaction. Herrick and McDonald (1992) used a single item

measure of satisfaction to identify relationship between attributes of a river recreation experience and satisfaction.

Chhetri, Arrowsmith and Jackson (2004) followed the premise that satisfaction is an emotional response to a product or service. Their study identified 15 attributes that included emotions/moods and other characteristics (such as crowding) as an estimation of satisfaction. No specific satisfaction variable was used. It is important to point out that they are measuring satisfaction emotions as opposed to consumption emotions.

Affect in Satisfaction Research

Oliver (1993) reviews and integrates the concepts of affect, along with cognitive based satisfaction which is the classic view of attribute performance. His research identifies the role of positive and negative affect in mediating the effect of attribute performance on satisfaction.

Spreng, MacKenzie and Olshavsky (1996) also identify an affective component, but only in the specific expectations of desires. The authors also integrate the concept of information satisfaction as a mediator of overall satisfaction. Information satisfaction is intended to separate attribute performance from the information that formed the expectancies (e.g., being misinformed about an attribute, or a previous experience that was uncharacteristically positive or negative).

Oliver's work with affective components of satisfaction prompted Phillips and Baumgartner (2002) to use positive and negative emotions in a structural equation using expectancies, perceived performance, disconfirmation and emotions as predictors of satisfaction.

Similarly, Andrue et al. (2006) used positive emotions as a mediator effect between restaurant atmosphere and the satisfaction response. Therefore, it can be seen that two variables that are used in satisfaction research are attribute expectancies/performance and affect/emotions.

Measuring Satisfaction

The majority of the measurements of overall satisfaction come from single item (on various point scales) measurements of very satisfied to very dissatisfied. Some have used the delighted to terrible scale of Westbrook (1980) (e.g. Kozak & Rimmington, 2000). Many of the tourism studies have used the items of intentions to return or recommend as in parallel to measures of satisfaction. However, these are separate constructs as demonstrated in several other studies (e.g. J. F. Petrick, 2002; Petrick & Backman, 2002a) and therefore should not be considered part of the satisfaction measure.

According to Danaher and Haddrell (1996), there are several ways to gauge consumer satisfaction: performance scales, which gauge attribute/product performance on a poor to excellent scale; disconfirmation scales, which gauge the performance in relation to the expectation on a worst than expected to better than expected scale; and satisfaction scales, which range from not satisfied to very satisfied. Some researchers have encouraged disconfirmation scales because the relationship to the dominant disconfirmation paradigm (Devlin, Dong, & Brown, 1993) and thus relating directly to the formation of satisfaction. However, there is evidence that the inclusion of expectancy measures is unnecessary (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Westbrook & Oliver, 1981).

Single versus Multiple

Previous research in satisfaction has utilized both single item measures of satisfaction and multiple item measurement scales. However, several studies have been conducted to examine if single item measures of satisfaction are sufficient. The majority of these studies report that multiple item measures provide more validity and variability than single item measures (Mittal, et al., 2001; Westbrook, 1980; Westbrook & Oliver, 1981). It is important when choosing the measures and specific items that should be used in the satisfaction scale that the items are easy to administer, understood by the respondent, and provides reliability (Devlin, et al., 1993).

Changes in Satisfaction over Time

Nearly all of the work relating to attribute evaluation of satisfaction has been done cross-sectionally (Oliver, 1997). There is a need to determine the temporal nature of attribute importance (Mittal, et al., 1999) as well as the lasting effect of attribute performance (Mittal, et al., 2001).

Mittal and colleagues are among the few researchers to examine the changes in satisfaction over time. In 1999, they conducted a study that identified a fluctuation in importance in certain car attributes over time. In the same study, they found that the relationships between importance, performance and satisfaction also fluctuated greatly (Mittal, et al., 1999). In 2001, they surveyed students enrolled in a college course to determine if satisfaction and intentions to recommend varied. As expected, as repeat

service encounters progressed, there were changes in the satisfaction levels (Mittal, et al., 2001).

In interviews with consumers concerning their satisfaction, Geise and Cote (2000) found that consumers generally feel that there is some fluctuation in levels of satisfaction. Several comments from the open-ended questions support the notion of Oliver (1981) that satisfaction has a finite duration.

Affect, Mood, Emotions

Although affect is a relatively new construct to the field of marketing, it is not new to other fields. The terms emotion and affect have been used interchangeably in some research, while they take on quite a different meaning in other research. Peterson and colleagues state that within consumer behavior research, "affect is typically treated as a synonym for feelings or emotions" (Peterson, et al., 1986, p. 141). Some researchers define affect and emotions as synonyms, whereas others treat them as separate constructs (e.g. Fiske & Taylor, 1984) thus complicating the issues when reviewing research in this area. Therefore it is necessary to review literature pertaining to the terms that are used most frequently within this body of research: affect, emotions, moods and feelings.

Defining Feelings

The first step in discussing any of these terms is to define feelings. All of these terms involve feelings at various levels of intensity, cognition, and specificity. Although feelings serve as the base for which authors define affect, emotions, and mood , few authors have tried to define the term.

In the book, *Social Cognition*, Fiske and Taylor (1984) provide a simple definition. They state the feelings are mild subjective reactions that are relatively pleasant or unpleasant. They go on to state that feelings are most frequently used in research in terms of evaluations, such as positive or negative reactions to some stimulus or object.

Berkowitz (2000) defines feelings as subjective, temporary and cognitive. This definition is very similar to the definition of Fiske and Taylor in that it is an evaluative reaction to stimuli. However, the further explanation of Berkowitz begins to differ in that feelings have no specific object. In a study of measuring emotions in consumer choice, Hansen, Christensen and Lundsteen (2006) define feelings as conscious or unconscious accompanying brain processes. None of these definitions refer to the source of these reactions, although there are some suggestions that they are both psychological and physiological.

In an attempt to examine the source of feelings, Shibles (1974) investigated the used of the term "feelings" in language. His discussion likens feelings to what some current definitions refer to as mood and concludes that the difficulty in defining feelings is the many uses of the term in modern language. "Feeling cold" or "feeling tired" are physiological aspects, where "feeling scared" and "feeling excited" are psychological, and "feeling confused" or "feeling smart" are cognitive. Yet another set of uses for "feeling" are completely comparatory, such as "I feel like an elephant" or "I feel like a rock." Feelings are thus so confusing that they can be interpreted only within the context of language (Shibles, 1974).

Aaker, Stayman and Vezina (1988) looked specifically at feelings as different from emotions, moods or "more general affect." Feelings were chosen as the study construct because the lower intensity as opposed to high intensity emotions. The objective of the research was to generate a list that covered the full range of feelings that might be generated from advertisements. The results indicated 31 feeling clusters that contained 16 positive and 15 negative feelings. The terms used for these feelings are very close to other studies that identify basic emotions. One very noticeable difference is the inclusion of cognitive-based assessments, such as stupid, confused, and informed.

In a review of the use of the terms "affect", "emotions" and "feelings" in advertising research, Wiles and Cornwell (1990) similarly conclude that the definition of feelings depends more on use in language than an empirical construct. Their conclusions also state that feelings can be viewed as simply less in intensity and duration than emotions.

The definition presented by Berkowitz seems to be the best suited for use in this study, especially in light of the following discussions of emotions and mood:

> Feelings are the subjective, temporary reactions that result from conscious evaluations of stimuli that may or may not have a clear object.

Defining Affect

As previously stated, some of the leading researchers on the structure of emotion from within psychology refer to emotion and affect as similar concepts (Feldman-Barrett & Russell, 1999; Russell & Feldman-Barrett, 1999). These same authors use the terms "affective feelings" which are complex feelings not object directed and "emotional

episodes" which are complex feelings that are object directed. "Emotional episodes" also include overt behavior. The term "affective feelings" is used to describe overall human feelings in which affect captures something necessary, but not sufficient to, emotional episodes.

Power (2006) recently acknowledged that affect has frequently been used synonymously with emotion. However, in an attempt to differentiate between emotion and affect, Power follows his own previous work and refers to affect as the conscious experience of emotion. Thus, this definition implies there are non-conscious components to emotion, and affect refers to only a part of the whole of emotion.

Unlike Power, Fiske and Taylor (1984) refer to affect as a generic term that encompasses all of feelings and emotions. Affect has also been defined as including moods in addition to feelings and emotions (Berkowitz, 2000; Power & Dalgleish, 1997). Batra, Ray and colleagues (1986; Holbrook & Batra, 1987) support the conclusion that affect encompasses all feelings, emotions and moods. Therefore the following definition is presented:

> Affect is a general term that includes the responses of feelings, emotions and moods. Affect is generally viewed on a valianced scale from positive to negative.

Defining Emotions

There are many studies that have been conducted with emotion as the central concept. However, it is clear that many of these studies contain variations of use and operationalization. It is evident that defining emotion is a very difficult task. This section

will review some of the ways emotion has been defined and used within psychology and marketing literature. First, the psychological definitions will be explored with emotion as a psychological concept. Second, the marketing literature will be explored to identify the ways emotion interacts with the behavior of the consumer. The final topic of this section will focus on how the term has been used and measured within the relevant literature.

In his 1961 textbook on emotion, James Hillman stated "From all the evidence at hand the concept of emotion has become central to the issues of our time." This posit seems to still be true today; yet in the past 46 years, the field of psychology has come only marginally closer to a consensus on the definition of emotion. The following are but a few recent conceptualizations that are a small part of the literature that involves psychological emotion.

To begin, a recent textbook on emotion from Katal and Shiota (2007) reviews previously offered definitions to outline what we currently view, in research, as emotions. Within the text, Plutchik's (1980) definition is explained and critiqued in order to better understand a few aspects of emotion that are necessary to understanding the basics. Plutchik's definition contains several important points. First, he concluded that emotion is inferred meaning: we can feel our own emotions, but cannot directly observe emotion in others. Second, emotion is a reaction to a stimulus. Every emotion has a target: those feelings that don't have a target, Katal and Shiota define as moods. Third, Plutchik's definition states that all emotions have three aspects: cognition, feeling and action. Thus, if you perceive danger, you process the necessary information and then engage in overt action. Finally, emotions are functional and thus serve a useful purpose. Despite the

recent publication date, Katal and Shinota's text refer to literature that dates back to the early 1970's.

In a report on newer measurement techniques, Niedenthal, Krauth-Gruber and Ric (2006) report that research in various aspects of psychology have looked at emotion as a reaction by the peripheral nervous system, which then can be measured by physiological response, and emotions are viewed as responses displayed through facial expressions. The authors also point to the diverse views of the originality of emotions. Some argue for a biological response, while others argue that emotion is a cognitive response. Therefore emotions can be measured in a variety of ways.

Although there have been advances in identifying the source of emotion (Kalat & Shiota, 2007) and there has been progress as to the identification and organization of basic emotions (Power, 2006), emotion research still lacks a common definition. However, Russell (2003) argues that the definitional boundaries of emotion need not be defined because nature does not provide definitive borders. He states that if these borders fail to reveal themselves in nature, than all definitions are innately subjective. Therefore, he argues that these subjective boundaries are less important than the need to explore the phenomenon itself (Kalat & Shiota, 2007).

Although some researchers have chosen not to offer definitive boundaries to the term emotion, it would serve the field well to develop a consensus definition that could then support future developments. Perhaps the best outline for the concept of emotion is laid out by Beedie, Terry and Lane (2005) in their comparison of emotion and mood. These terms have been used heavily within recent literature that allowed the authors to

use 65 recent articles along with 106 individuals to identify the differences in conceptualization and in use. Their results show that there is at least some level of general consensus to certain aspects of the terms. For example, the two most highly referenced differences in both the literature and respondents were categorized as cause and duration. The analysis revealed that emotional causes are object based, where moods are not. Also, moods have a longer duration and are less intense than emotions.

In her review of emotional measurement within the field of marketing, Richins (1997) follows the definitional view of Ortony, Clore and colleagues. Their work does not offer specific definitions; rather they allow the characteristics of emotions that are revealed in research to outline the specifics. They conclude that emotions are valenced affective reaction to perceptions of situations. This conclusion implies a level of cognitive reaction. Characteristics not included in this framework are any nonvalenced cognitions, any reference to bodily feelings such as being tired, and subjective evaluations of self or other people, such as confidence or loneliness.

In a comparison of attitudes with emotion, Allen, Machleit and Kleine (1992) outline emotion as specific, intense reactions to stimuli. This comparison follows the above definitions that refer to emotions as more intense and object (stimuli) based. The study uses Izard's (1977) 10 basic emotions to determine differences between the influence of attitude and emotion on evaluations of specific experiences.

Fiske and Taylor (1984) define emotions as complex assortments of affects that are more than simply good or bad feelings and result in discrete cognitive reactions, such as sadness, anger, delight, and serenity. Similar to the definitions above, emotions can

imply intense feelings with physical manifestations, such as facial expressions or arousal. In light of these studies, the following working definition is presented:

> Emotions are complex reactions to stimuli that often result in physical manifestations that can be categorized into discrete groups of basic emotions. Emotions are object directed, intense and generally short in duration.

Defining Mood

Moods have had considerably less attention within the marketing literature. The primary use of moods follows the psychological definition of Berkowitz (2000) that moods are more enduring, more general in nature and less conscious than emotions. Fiske and Taylor offer a similar definition that moods are not directed at a specific target and that moods have a broader effect on social cognitions and behaviors.

In one notable study, Beedie, Terry and Lane (2005) conducted qualitative interviews of 106 individuals with various demographic characteristics and a review of 65 research articles involving both terms. The simple question was "what is the difference between emotion and mood." The primary differences from both samples were duration, intensity and cause. These mirror the definitions offered above and therefore this working definition is presented:

> Moods are combinations of feelings that when compared to emotions are less intense, longer lasting, and are less target directed. Moods also tend to have a greater influence on behavior over the long term.

Emotion Research

This stream is not a new one as some researchers suggest (Feldman-Barrett & Russell, 1999; Russell & Feldman-Barrett, 1999). Emotion has been a central focus for psychological research for much longer than the fairly recent centrality of cognition (Peterson, et al., 1986). Emotion was the central focus of many psychological researchers in the mid 1950's and is reflected in Freud's work centered on emotions and the human psyche.

The lack of a consensus definition as discussed above does not imply that emotional research is doomed and should be avoided; rather the commonalities should be highlighted. For example, most of the marketing definitions involve a cognitive appraisal of feelings and/or meanings (Niedenthal, et al., 2006). Therefore, the cognitive measure methods (such as self reporting) do indeed work. However, if assumed that moods are less cognitive, then self reporting will not work as an effective measuring device.

Even when using self reporting scales, there are disagreements as to how many emotions need to be measured. Therefore, there are several scales that can be used coming from various studies such Plutchik's EPI, Izard's DES, or Richins' CES, which all disagree on the number of emotions that should be measured. Throughout research in this area, there is a discrepancy in the number of basic emotions from both psychology (Power, 2006) and from marketing (Richins, 1997).

One of the most difficult concepts to consider when researching emotion is the notion of mixed emotion. For example, Ruth, Brunel and Otnes (2002) found that when reporting emotions in the context of mixed emotions, the respondents were more

ambiguous on the specific emotions felt, especially in the opposite direction (e.g. when experiencing overall positive affect, negative emotions such as anger are less clear). Goodstein, Edell and Moore (1990) suggest that the specific combination of emotions that form the mixed emotion context is an important step in toward understanding the interaction between specific emotions.

An additional way to categorize the affect/emotion literature is based on the basic framework that was utilized. One common use is the valenced approach that looks primarily at the positiveness and negativeness of various emotional responses or as a whole. This is important to research as it specifies that overall behavior is linked to basic "good" versus "bad" feelings. However, because the lack of specificity of the true nature of emotions in these studies, emotional scales have been developed to examine the existence of multiple emotions at any given time. This development is important as it can measure basic emotions and, in some scales, a degree of intensity can be judged.

One recent use of emotion within the realm of tourism comes from a segmentation study (Bigne & Andreu, 2004). Visitors to interactive museums and theme parks where segmented by values of positive or negative affect and levels of arousal using Russell's pleasure and arousal approach. Emotions were but one of many variables investigated in this study. The authors conclude that emotions are a suitable method of segmentation using hierarchical and nonhierarchical cluster analysis.

Using a similar bidimensional approach, White and Scandale (2005) asked respondents to think about a destination as a possible vacation spot. They were then asked how strongly they felt about the items on the scale. This study is an interesting look

at what emotions are elicited by the destination itself, as opposed to the majority of advertising research which looks at promotional materials or advertisements. This approach provides an interesting look at emotions elicited by pre-visit destination image and is a good example of tourism research involving unique emotions.

Within sport, emotion has been most frequently studied within the realm of optimum performance such as Hanin's (1986) Zones of Optimal Functioning, or in coping (Uphill & Jones, 2004) or through the specific affective reaction of anxiety. The use of emotion in these instances is not the same as the emotions elicited by the experience of sport. Therefore, these uses of emotion will be avoided.

Although there is a comparatively small amount of sport literature that directly relates to the current topic, a couple sport-specific measures have been introduced that might prove useful for future research. First, Morgan and his colleagues developed the Profile of Mood States (POMS) that help measure sport-specific emotions (Kerr, 1997). The second scale developed for sport-specific instances comes from Jones et al. (2005), where they developed a 22 item scale that measures 5 separate sport emotions. However, these measures are limited in that they do not capture other emotions that developed from other aspects of the experience such as location (Thelwell, Weston, Lane, & Greenlees, 2006) or atmosphere.

Measuring Emotion

In a review of the studies of affect (here including concepts falling under affect such as feelings, emotions, and moods), Wiles and Cornwell (1990) outline several of the trends within this stream of research. Although their review was targeted to advertising-

related research, the findings prove useful here. The primary method used to measure affect and related concepts was self reporting. The authors outline four goals of self reporting research: typology development, development of items for a scale, studies utilizing magnitude related measures, and other innovative measurements. In addition to the self reports, there were several psychophysiological studies. These included studies utilizing brain waves (EEG), facial electromyographic activity, pupillary response, skin response, voice analysis, heart rate, and other overt bodily responses.

Oliver (1994) used the general concept of affect in a study of satisfaction. Affect was operationalized using Watson, Clark and Tellegen's (1988) octagonal affect space. This instrument uses 16 items, and respondents were measured by frequency of the occurrence of each affect. It is important to note that in this instrument affect is operationalized exactly like the use of emotion in other studies and similar to Aaker, Stayman & Vezina's (1988) use of feelings.

Ortony, Clore, and Collins (1988) classify the evidence for emotion into four main categories: language, self-reports, behavior and physiology. The latter two are suggested to be reaction based and thus cannot truly capture the origins that are based on cognitive construal of events. It would seem that the majority of research within marketing literature has focused on the first two, with some psychology and a few marketing studies focusing on physiological responses.

One of the earliest measures comes from the view of emotion of Plutchik (1980, Plutchik and Kellerman, 1974). This framework includes 8 emotions that range from

positive to negative; fear, anger, joy, sadness, acceptance, disgust, expectancy and surprise. The items measuring these emotions comprise the Emotion Profile Index (EPI).

Using facial physiological research, Izard (1977) developed the Differential Emotions Scale (DES) from the 10 emotions apparent in facial muscle response. These 10 emotins are interest, enjoyment, surprise, distress (sadness) anger, disgust, contempt, fear, shame/shyness, and guilt.

While implementing these frameworks of emotion, other researchers have failed to support the notion of a consistent set of basic emotion. The claims that all emotions are combinations of these basics have not been supported. Therefore, Richins (1997) concludes that it might be beneficial to develop a scale that measures all available emotions and to develop a framework that includes the full scope of affective reactions. To fulfill this need in research, a list of emotions that were elicited in consumption experiences was developed. Through a series of studies that reduced an initial 175 "emotional words" to a set of 13 emotional categories, the following emotions were proposed and form the items for the Consumption Emotion Set (CES); anger, discontent, worry, sadness, fear, shame, envy, loneliness, romantic love, love, peacefulness, contentment, and optimism.

In a framework that does not seek basic emotions, Mehrabian and Russell (1974) use three basic dimensions to describe emotion. The Pleasure Arousal Dominance (PAD) scale is intended to measure the overall affective state. This scale includes 18 semantic differential items, six each for the three dimensions of pleasure, arousal and dominance. This measure is not useful when trying to identify specific emotional response, but quite

applicable when the researcher is interested in the underlying affective state. In a similar scale utilizing two dimensions of affect, Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988) offered the positive affect, negative affect scale (PANAS). This scale offers 10 positive emotions of enthusiastic, interested, determined, inspired, alert, active, strong, proud, attentive and excited, and 10 negative emotions of scared, afraid, upset, distressed, jittery, nervous, ashamed, guilty, irritable and hostile.

Gaps in Satisfaction Research

An important implication can be summarized by a work 30 years ago. Pfaff (1977) stressed the importance of the psychological aspect of consumer satisfaction. Researchers should acknowledge that there is both a cognitive side, and an affective side. Hunt (1991) even argues that satisfaction is an emotion not a cognition. This view reflects one overriding impression; satisfaction equals happiness. However, it seems that the interaction and influence of these two sides have only recently been introduced to research and deserve a thorough treatment in future studies.

Drawing from the definitions above, it would seem that affect is a better term to describe the overall state of a person's wellbeing. However, there are several challenges to operationalizing this broad concept. First, the concept of affect may include such feelings and moods that are non-conscious and therefore require quite different methods of measurement than self reporting of the more conscious concept of emotion. In addition, there is little available research that actually measures the true core of affect.

Once the differentiation between affect and emotions is made, it is can be seen that emotions have been integrated into the satisfaction model. However, in all of these

models, emotions act as a complete mediator between attribute evaluations and satisfaction. It seems that evidence that emotions and attribute evaluations can act on satisfaction simultaneously is lacking from the research.

Satisfaction research concerning change over time is rare. Only a handful of studies have looked at this possibility. Of those that have, most have only been able to conclude that satisfaction does indeed change over time, but fail to identify how (Mittal, et al., 2001; Mittal, et al., 1999).

Implications drawn from the uses of emotion in related literature are apparent. There have been few studies measuring the emotions of experiential consumption within the tourism and sport settings. There is a need for using the same types of methods that are present in marketing and apply them to tourism/sport settings to determine the unique emotional response of these experiences. This study represents an opportunity to not only use emotions in the study of sport and tourism, but also to further to the understanding of the formation and dynamics of consumer satisfaction.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

The purpose of this chapter is to present the frameworks that have been used to measure satisfaction, emotions and attributes as they serve as the theoretical foundation for this study. The first section discusses the relevant models of satisfaction that have been used in previous research. The next section will discuss the ways in which emotion and affect have been measured in satisfaction studies and present the method that will be used in this study. The third section will outline the previous research that has been used to measure attribute performance of golf courses. The final section of the chapter will describe the model proposed and tested by drawing on the links described previously.

Satisfaction

The primary paradigm for measuring and understanding satisfaction comes from the expectancy disconfirmation model (Oliver, 1997). According to this paradigm, satisfaction is the resulting response when there is a comparison between what is expected of an experience and what actually occurs in the experience. This comparison can come from either a cognitive evaluation or an emotional reaction of the consumption experience (Bigne, Mattila, & Andreu, 2008). There has been some research suggesting that this simple comparison concept results in an incomplete model of the formation of satisfaction. For example, an individual who expects poor performance and receives it, should still be satisfied, but this has been shown to be incorrect (LaTour & Peat, 1979).

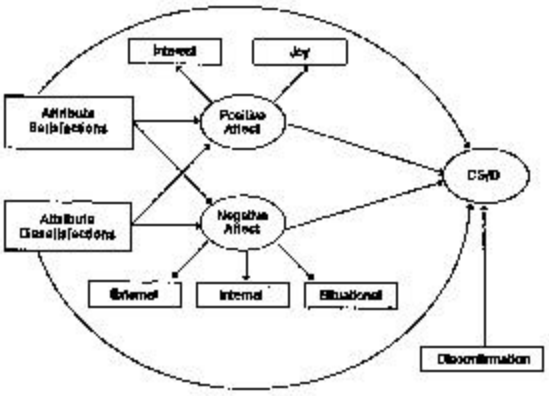
Researchers have suggested some variation comes from the work on experiential consumption (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986; Holbrook, et al., 1984; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). This research focuses on the emotional aspects of the consumption experience and suggests that further research is needed that addresses this issue. The importance of emotion in human cognition has been documented as having a substantive influence on memory and thought processes (see Westbrook & Oliver, 1991).

To address the questions of the relationship between emotion and satisfaction judgment, Westbrook and Oliver (1991) analyze the ten emotions from Izard's DES-II measure in relation to five different satisfaction scales. Results show significant relationships and suggest that satisfaction is a complex response, thus requiring further exploration.

Mood has been the focus of some research concerning post consumption evaluations of products. For example, Miniard, Bhatla and Sirdeshmukh (1992) used an experimental design to manipulate mood through music while evaluating products. No measures of affect, emotions or mood was measured in this study; thus the assumption that mood was the primary difference in product variations can be questioned.

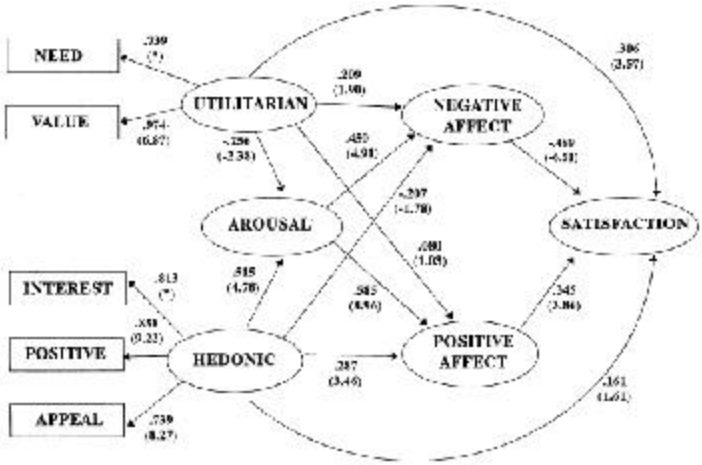
Following the work of Westbrook (1987) that examines the role of affect on consumption, Oliver (1993) integrated positive and negative emotions into the cognitive satisfaction model. It is important to note that while Figure 3.1 uses the terms positive and negative affect, the measurement of these is actually the categorization of Izard's ten emotions into positive (2) and negative (7).

FIGURE 3.1 – Oliver (1993) Model of Attribute Based Satisfaction



Using the PANAS measure of emotions, Mano and Oliver (1993) integrated positive and negative affect into a satisfaction model. This model also uses utilitarian and hedonic attribute performance and arousal predicting affect. This model is very similar to the Oliver's model discussed above, with the addition of the physio-psychological measure of arousal. This addition allows for certain amounts of non-cognitive feelings such as mood to be integrated into the model.

FIGURE 3.2 – Mano and Oliver (1993) Causal Model of Affect and Satisfaction



Phillips and Baumgartner (2002) review recent research in this area and propose a model that includes a differentiation between positive expectancies and negative expectancies, which have a direct relation with positive emotions and negative emotions. Similar to the studies above, emotions are categorized by their positive and negative components. These then serve as a mediator of the relationship of product performance evaluations and satisfaction. The relationships in the study do not include a direct relationship of emotion on satisfaction. Missing from this and other studies is an examination of a direct relationship between emotion and satisfaction.

The second major aspect of the model proposed in this dissertation is to examine changes in ratings of satisfaction over time. Research on recall suggests that when reflecting on a consumption experience, consumers are nearly twice as likely to rely on the performance of individual attributes as overall performance during the satisfaction response (Gardial, et al., 1994). There is a need to determine the temporal nature of attribute importance (Mittal, et al., 1999), lasting effect of attribute performance (Mittal, et al., 2001), as well as the changing effects of affect over time. Because of the relatively small number of studies that have integrated longitudinal aspects into satisfaction, this study is intended to measure satisfaction immediately following the round of golf (Immediate Satisfaction) and again at a time in the future after the respondent has had time to reflect upon the experience (Reflective Satisfaction).

Emotional Appraisal

Following the research as discussed above, the model in this dissertation uses emotions as a predictor of satisfaction. Following much of the psychology research on

emotions, this model proposes that complexity of emotions prevents simple categorization into positive and negative components (Fiske & Taylor, 1984). Therefore, it is proposed that emotions collectively predict satisfaction regardless of their positive or negative nature.

The term "emotional appraisal" represents the post-hoc measurement of the emotions that were elicited during consumption experience, in this case the round of golf. This important differentiation between the term emotion and emotional appraisal signifies the time in which the measurement happens. Emotions are real-time feelings as opposed the emotional appraisal as the reflective evaluation of those feelings.

The measure of emotional appraisal used in this study comes from Richins' (1997) Consumption Emotions Scale (CES). This scale was developed through a series of studies that analyzed the emotions that individuals experience during actual consumption situations. The primary strength of this scale is the use of language that comes directly from the respondents in other consumption experiences. This approach minimizes the possibilities that there are differences between standard emotions and consumption emotions.

Attribute Appraisal

The terminology of attribute appraisal is intended to match that of the emotional appraisal of the other independent variable. This measurement is the evaluation of the perceived performance of selected attributes during the round of golf.

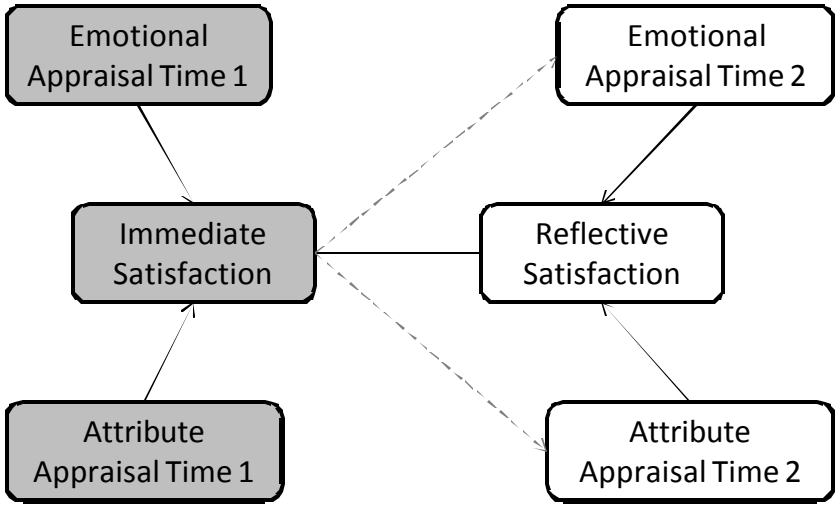
Faircloth, Richard and Richard (1995) developed and tested a seventeen itemscale of golf course attributes that fall into four categories. These items present each attribute

in easy-to-understand sentence form. The respondent then records their amount of agreement with the statement. The attribute performance can then be evaluated by the level of agreement with the statement. For example, the first item on the scale states "the speed of play is to my liking." This item measures the performance of the speed of play according to the respondent's preference.

Proposed Model

Following the discussion above, the following model is proposed (Figure 3.3). Following the work of Oliver (1993), there are both affective (emotional appraisal) and cognitive (attribute appraisal) components. The relationships between components of Time 1 and Time 2 are those thought to influence the relationship between immediate satisfaction and reflective satisfaction. Because the time-based causal relationships no other relationships are explored in the model. However, there is no mediating effect of emotions on the attribute performance to satisfaction link, which is an important deviation from the research of Oliver (1993) and Phillips and Baumgartner (2002). Additionally, there is no differentiation between positive and negative emotions, which supports the work of Ruth, Brunel and Otnes (2002), and suggests that emotions can occur simultaneously despite their positive or negative characteristics. Hypotheses Five and Six relate to the investigation of the relationships between the satisfaction variables. The links in the model represent the various hypotheses that will guide the analysis of this study.

FIGURE 3.3 - Proposed Model of the Relationship between Emotional Appraisal and Attribute Performance on Satisfaction



Presentation of the Hypotheses

The first objective was to determine the extent that emotional appraisal and attribute appraisal predict satisfaction at time one and time two. Based on this objective, the first two hypotheses were developed.

H_{01}: Emotional appraisal at Time One accounts for an equal proportion of the variance of immediate satisfaction as attribute appraisal at Time One.

H_{02}: Emotional appraisal at Time Two accounts for an equal proportion of the variance of reflective satisfaction as attribute appraisal at Time Two.

The second objective was to determine if the effects of emotional appraisal and attribute appraisal on satisfaction change from Time One to Time Two. Hypothesis 3

represents the relationship of emotional appraisal to satisfaction at both times and hypothesis 4 represents the relationship of attribute appraisal to satisfaction.

H_{03}: The proportion of variance accounted for by Emotional Appraisal at Time One and Time Two is unaffected by time.

H_{04}: The proportion of variance accounted for by Attribute Appraisal at Time One and Time Two is unaffected by time.

The third objective is to determine if immediate satisfaction predicts reflective satisfaction, or if the appraisals at Time Two predict reflective satisfaction. Hypothesis 5 represents the relationship of immediate satisfaction on the appraisals at Time Two. Hypothesis 6 represents the relationship of immediate satisfaction on reflective satisfaction and the possible dependency on the appraisals at Time Two.

H_{05}: Emotional appraisal at Time Two and attribute appraisal at Time Two are unaffected by immediate satisfaction.

H_{06}: The relationship between immediate satisfaction and reflective satisfaction is not mediated by emotional appraisal at Time Two or attribute appraisal at Time Two.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The following discussion outlines the procedures used to implement a study to identify the role of emotion in the satisfaction response of golf tourists. The first section of this chapter describes the study area that serves as a popular destination for golf travelers. The second section of this chapter describes the procedures for recruiting subjects and the methods of data collections. The next section describes the development of the instrument. Included in this section is a review of the pretest that was implemented to further refine the instrument. The final section of this chapter describes the statistical methods employed to test the hypotheses through the data obtained from the questionnaires.

Study Area

The population for this study is comprised of travelers who choose destinations for the primary intention of golf participation. Within South Carolina, there are several regions known world-wide as golf destinations. Myrtle Beach, South Carolina, is part of a larger 60 mile long beach-front region called the Grand Strand. Within this region there are approximately 100 golf courses, most of which cater to needs and desires of golf travelers. This concentration of golf courses is among the most dense of any region in the world providing an ideal region from which to select the study sample. Because of the large number of golf courses in the Grand Strand, which is a large geographic region, a smaller area was chosen to better facilitate data collection. In the southern end of this

area, there are 12 courses that have formed a marketing initiative called the "Waccamaw Trail." Following informal interviews with the managers of several golf courses, three were selected because they have similar characteristics but attract a somewhat varied clientele. The similarities of the golf courses include price level, course quality, type of course design, difficulty, and geographical proximity. These similarities help control for some of the variables that might impact responses to the study variables, while the differences in clientele allow the inclusion of responses from a subjects with a variety of skills, backgrounds, and trip intentions. The following review of the golf courses is based primarily on interviews with the general managers and golf professionals who are employed at the facilities.

The northern-most course that was used as a collection site was Blackmoor. This Gary Player Signature-designed course is one of the older courses in the Waccamaw Trail. Its slightly lower price point and level of quality place Blackmoor as a mid-lower quality course relative to the other courses in the region. This course was also the first to agree to participate and therefore had the most influence on the development of the study and instrument.

Approximately 20 miles south of Blackmoor lie both True Blue Golf Club and Caledonia Golf and Fish Club. These two courses fall under the same ownership, but have different managers each with individual management styles. The price and quality of True Blue place it in a mid-upper quality course in the region. This course was selected as a participant because of its location and the shared ownership with Caledonia.

Caledonia Golf and Fish Club has the highest price point and generally the highest quality of any course in the region. The clientele of this course represent the most affluent of the regional golf visitors.

Selection of Subjects

Respondents were recruited near the clubhouse of each course as they completed their round of golf. The specific locations varied for each golf course based on the geographic relationship between the 9th and 18th greens and the collection area where all golfers pass through after completing their round. Caledonia and Blackmoor had collection areas very near the main entrance to the clubhouse, and True Blue has approximately 150 yards from the collection area to the clubhouse entrance. Following a convenience sampling method, all golfers who passed through the collection area during the recruitment time were asked to participate. If the respondents were local residents (qualified as having local zip-codes as their primary residents) or members of the course they were thanked for their time but did not complete the survey. If local residents where interviewed, their responses were excluded from the analysis. The collection times were designed to maximize the response rate while still achieving relative representiveness to the overall course clientele. Similar to most golf courses in the Grand Strand, golfers at the selected courses began on both the 1st and 10th tees from approximately 8:00 a.m. to 10:15 a.m. tee times reserved in advance (exact time depends on the course setup). The golfers then begin to finish from approximately 12:00 p.m. to 2:30 p.m. These golfers comprise the "morning group" of potential respondents. Another group of golfers then

begin play on the 1st and 10th tees from 12:00 p.m. to 2:15 p.m. following the same procedures. These golfers were referred to as the "afternoon group."

According to data collected from the golf course management on each of the data collection days, a large proportion of the respondents were scheduled to play two rounds of golf each day of their visit. This schedule limited the available time of the golfers in the morning group. Therefore, the sampling times were scheduled to focus on Thursday, Friday and Saturday afternoons, when a large majority of play was by travelers who were not scheduled to leave the property immediately. Each golfer who just completed a round and was screened to be a golf traveler was then recruited to join the study. The subjects were given a short explanation of the study purpose, potential risks, and outcomes, and were informed that upon completion, they would receive a coupon for a free drink in the clubhouse.

Collection of Data

In order to collect date reflecting the immediate feelings of the golfers, a paper survey was administered on site. Each of the subjects was informed of the study's objectives, and the two phases of the study was explained. The recruitment script can be found in Appendix A. Those subjects who agreed to participate were handed a questionnaire that contained four pages. The respondents then completed the survey in the clubhouse. A research assistant located in the clubhouse then collected the completed surveys from the respondents. Upon the completion of the questionnaire, the respondents were given a complimentary drink at participating golf course.

The questionnaire also contained a separate page that asked if the respondent would be willing to participate in the second phase of the data collection (Appendix B). The insert explained that participation was voluntary, but they would be entered into a drawing for one of three "stay and play" golf packages, again courtesy of the golf course. To agree, the responded submitted an e-mail address for follow-up. The second phase of the study was designed to be an online survey hosted by Survey Monkey.

Questionnaire Development

In order to conduct this study, two survey instruments were developed with two different delivery/collection methods. The first phase of the data collection was with a self-administered paper study collected on site immediately following the completion of the round of golf. This survey was intended to collect the majority of the data needed for the study, thus keeping the length of the Time 2 questionnaire to a minimum. For example, all of the demographic, golf characteristic and trip characteristic variables were collected at Time 1. The Time 2 online survey instrument was delivered 21-28 days following the completion of the Time 1 questionnaire. The discussion below addresses the development of the dependent and independent variables used during both phases followed by the specific development for the each phase. The time 1 paper study and the time 2 online survey can be found in Appendices C and D.

Dependent Variable - Satisfaction

Satisfaction was assessed using four separate items to aid in reliability and validity of measurement (Danaher & Haddrell, 1996). The items chosen for inclusion in

this study have been used in previous research (see Danaher & Haddrell, 1996; J. F. Petrick, 2002; Petrick, et al., 1999; Petrick, et al., 2001). For internal consistency, each of the rating scale questions were measured using a seven-point Likert-type scale. For the most direct measurement of overall satisfaction (Devlin, et al., 1993) respondents were asked to "Please rate your satisfaction with today's round of golf" using the scale of 1="very dissatisfied" to 7="very satisfied." The next item is based from Westbrook's (1980) analysis of service satisfaction, "Please rate the overall experience of today's round of golf," using a scale ranging from 1=terrible to 7=delighted. Following the expectation-performance paradigm, another item measured satisfaction, "Please rate your overall impression of today's golfing experience" using the 1="much worse than expected" to 7="much better than expected" scale. Following the measures used in previous studies, the final item was, "Please rate your pleasure experienced during today's round of golf" using a scale of 1="very displeased" to 7="very pleased." These four items were presented in two separate locations in the questionnaire to help avoid conditioned responses.

Independent Variable – Emotional Appraisal

The focus of this study was to identify the impact of consumption emotions on satisfaction; therefore Richins' Consumption Emotions Scale (CES) is most appropriate and was implemented in its entirety. The emotions and representative adjectives are as follows listed in Table 4.1.

TABLE 4.1 – List of Emotions and Corresponding Adjectives

Measured Emotion	*Descriptive Adjectives*	*Measured Emotion (continued)*	*Descriptive Adjectives*
Anger	Frustrated Angry Irritated	Romantic Love	Sexy Romantic Passionate
Discontent	Unfulfilled Discontented	Love	Loving Sentimental Warm-hearted
Worried	Nervous Worried Tense	Peacefulness	Calm Peaceful
Sadness	Depressed Sad Miserable	Contentment	Contentment Fulfilled
Fear	Scared Afraid Panicky	Optimism	Optimism Encouraged Hopeful
Shame	Embarrassed Ashamed Humiliated	Joy	Happy Pleased Joyful
Envy	Envious Jealous	Excitement	Excited Thrilled Ethusiastic
Loneliness	Lonely Homesick	Surprise	Surprised Amazed Astonished

Several items were considered for removal because of concerns with face validity. For example, it is difficult to justify the items for the emotion of Romantic Love in a sport setting. However, all items were used in the initial test, giving special attention to statistical and validity issues with some of the items.

The respondents were directed to consider how they felt during their round and then responded to a randomized list of the adjectives following the statement, "Today's round of golf made me feel":___. Next, they would rate each adjective on a seven point Likert-type scale from 1="Not at all" to7= "Strongly." The adjectives were randomized to lessen any effects of positive versus negative conditioning.

Independent Variable – Attribute Appraisal

Attribute appraisal was measured following Faircloth, Richard and Richard (1995), in which a factor regression model was constructed to measure the performance of golf course attributes. Each of these attributes is represented in a statement in which the respondent signified level of agreement using a seven-point Likert-type scale of 1="strongly disagree" to 7="strongly agree."

TABLE 4.2 – Golf Attribute Categories and Corresponding Statements

Attribute Category	*Attribute Statement*
Access	The speed of play is to my liking.
	The price of play is reasonable for a course of this quality.
	Getting convenient tee times in not a major problem.
	The course is conveniently located.
Course	The course is not too long in terms of yardage.
	The course layout fits my style of play (e.g. width, hazards, etc.)
	The condition of the greens is excellent.
	The condition of the fairways is excellent.
	The course difficulty is appropriate for my level of play.
People	The attitude of the other golfers is friendly.
	The course is designed by a well know designer.
	The golf pro has helped me improve my game.
	The course was recommended by someone I respect.
Extras	The restaurant or food service is excellent.
	The course has several amenities, such as a pool, tennis courts, etc.
	I enjoy shopping in the proshop.
	The practice facilities are excellent.

Demographic, Golf and Trip Variables

Personal variables of gender, age, residence, marital status, children in the household, household income and ethnic background were collected and used to determine if the sample represented the average golf traveler, according to characteristics identified by the National Golf Foundation (NGF, 2004). Gender was assessed by asking participants to check one of the two categories: male or female. Age was assessed by using an open response to "what is your age." Residence was assessed by asking the

respondent "what is the zip code of your primary residence," followed by an open response. To determine marital status, respondents were asked to check one of the following categories: single, married, separated, divorced, widowed, and life partner. The number of children in the household was assessed by asking how many children under the age of 18 live in their household followed by an open response blank. Household income was assessed from the following categories: Under $30,000; $30,000 – 49,999; $50,000 – 99,999; $100,000 – 124,999; $125,000-149,999; $150,000 or more. Ethnic background was assessed by asking the respondent to check one of the following categories: Black or African American; Hispanic; White; Native American/American Indian; Asian; Other.

Golf experience variables included frequency of play, frequency of golf travel, number of golf destinations visited, USGA handicap, self-rated ability and years of golf experience. Frequency of play was assessed using the open response to "regardless of which courses you play, how many times per year do you play golf?" The number of golf vacations was assessed using an open response to "Regardless of where you travel to play golf, how many golf vacations have you taken in the past 5 years?" To measure the respondents ability, one item asking for USGA handicap or average score was used with the following categories: Zero or +(72 or less); 1-5 (73-78); 6-10 (79-84); 11-20 (85-96); 21-30 (97-110); and More than 30 (111+). Self-rated ability was assessed using the categories of beginner, intermediate, advanced and expert. Number of years playing golf was assessed as an open ended question, "How many years have you been playing golf?"

Several trip characteristics were assessed, such as number of days in Myrtle Beach, number of rounds played while in Myrtle Beach, and the main reason for traveling to Myrtle Beach. The number of days and the number of rounds played were both assessed using open ended responses to the following; "How many days do you plan to stay in Myrtle Beach," and "How many rounds of golf will you play while here in Myrtle Beach?" The main reason for traveling to Myrtle Beach was assessed by checking one of the following categories: Family Vacation, Golf Vacation, Single round of golf, Business, Other attraction, or other reason. One additional variable of interest is the perception of the level of play during the round of golf and was assessed by a seven-point Likert-type scale (very bad to very good) response to "Please rate how you played today compared to your normal level of play."

Time One: On-Site Survey

The Time One questionnaire was self-administered and collected on site. The first section of the survey contained questions pertaining to the respondent's level of golf experience. Also in this first section were questions pertaining to the trip characteristics for each respondent. The second section contained the first two of the satisfaction questions: the better/worse and terrible/delightful scales. This section also contained the question as to the respondent's perception of how they played during that day's round of golf. The third section contained the emotion items. The next section contained the other two satisfaction items: dissatisfied/satisfied and displeased/pleased. The fifth section contained the attribute statements with the agree/disagree scale. The final section

contained the demographic variables. The full survey instrument can be found in Appendix C.

Time Two: Online Survey

The online survey contained only the questions needed for time comparison. Section one contained the emotion questions presented in the same manner as the paper survey but with radio selection buttons. The second section contained the first two satisfaction items: worse/better and terrible/delighted. The third section contained the golf attribute statements and the agree/disagree scale on a seven point Likert-type scale similar to the on-site survey. The final section contained the final two items of the satisfaction scale: dissatisfied/satisfied and displeased/pleased. The full survey instrument can be round in Appendix D.

Pilot Tests

The initial pilot test was collected to analyze the language of the items for clarity as well as to determine the length of time it took to complete the survey. The first version of the questionnaire took approximately seven minutes to complete for the pilot sample of 42 college students in a university golf class. Following this pilot test, the order of several items was adjusted to increase the flow and design of the survey. Two demographic questions, income and ethnic background, were moved to first section to shorten the final demographic section. Other minor design changes were made to aid in respondents' understanding.

A second pilot test of the Time 1 questionnaire was fielded to review the clarity and time of the final version of the survey and to assess the impact of several potentially troublesome items. A total of 67 surveys were collected from the target population to further test flow and gauge face validity of the items.

Informal interviews were conducted with 23 of the respondents to gauge the validity of certain measures. The items for romantic love and love tended to lead to lower credibility of the instrument, thus lowering involvement for the remainder of the survey and in several cases prompting incomplete responses. Because of these issues as well as week statistical relationships, the two emotions (romantic love and love) and the six associated adjectives (sexy, romantic, passionate, loving, sentimental, warm hearted) were dropped from the final instrument.

Data Preparation

Before testing any portion of the model, an analysis of missing data must be conducted. Using the structural equation modeling software EQS, tests for the randomness of missing data can be conducted. If there is a significant amount of missing data, then a test can be conducted for data missing completely at random (MCAR). If this test is significant, than there is no relationship between any of the missing data points. A less strict test can determine if the data is missing at random (MAR). If this test is significant, than there is only small amount of relationship between missing data points but not enough to contribute any bias to the results. In either of these cases, data imputation can be used following maximum likelihood techniques. If these tests are not significant, then further analysis should be conducted to determine possible sources for

these biases and control for them in further analyses. A review of the testing procedures can be found in Table 4.3.

The next step is to screen the data set for outliers and influential cases. The variables of interest in the hypothesis testing were all collected on seven-point, Likert-type scales, thus eliminating the need to screen for univariate outliers with the exception of a few demographic and golf characteristic questions. Cases with outliers in these items were flagged for further examination. Multivariate influential cases were determined using the regression diagnostics methods of Mahalanobis Distance, Cooks Distance and Studentized Deleted residuals. These cases were also flagged for further examination. In order to have accurate estimation in any structural equation model it is necessary to assume normality. If multivariate data is non-normal, it can lead to improper estimation of the relationships in the model. Therefore, additional data screening must be conducted to identify cases the cause excessive skewness or kurtosis. These cases were flagged using the diagnostic procedures in the structural equation model software, EQS (Bentler,2006) which flags any cases that have excessive influence on the kurtosis of the data.

Statistical Testing

The first step to test the proposed model is to conduct appropriate tests of the data to ensure that the tests at Time One and time two display appropriate equivalence. The next step is to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis to ensure that the items in the two primary scales of emotions (Richins, 1997 CES) and attribute performance (Faircloth, Richard and Richard, 1995) have a similar structure to the original scales. This

confirmation is necessary to ensure that the previously tested reliability and validity are consistent with this model, thus eliminating the need to retest for reliability and validity of the scales. The next step is to measure the overall fit of the model to test if the proposed model is an accurate fit to the actual relationships in the data. The final step is to test the hypotheses. A full list of the testing procedures can be found in Table 4.3.

Scale Assessment and Refinement

Anderson and Gerbing (1988) reviewed a two-step approach for developing and refining structural models for testing with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). First, a measurement model of first order factors is developed. Once a measurement model that demonstrates acceptable levels of fit is developed, a structural model can be built upon the first order factors. This second step is where the specific causal relationships are developed and tested.

Hatcher (1994) then takes the two steps and expands them into a simple guide for developing complex CFA models. Once a model has been conceptualized and organized, the initial model should be examined for fit through the chi-square statistic, comparative fit index, and other fit indices. It is also important during this step to examine the significance tests of the parameters estimated in the model. Any non-significant estimates should be further examined for possible modification or removal. Additional relationships can be identified through examination of the residual matrix or the modification suggestions from the LaGrange Multiplier test (LM test) or the Wald test. The LM test looks at certain possible additions to the model, and the Wald test examines what would change if the parameter is dropped. During this first step reliability and

validity can be examined through correlations between items and factors (Hatcher, 1994). Any modifications should be considered carefully to avoid adding relationships that are not theoretically supported. Additionally, modifications should be made in small steps with only one or two changes made at each step. Each of these iterations should be examined by following the steps as described above.

Measurement Invariance

The first step in this process is to determine if the inter-scale relationships at Time One are similar to the inter-scale relationships at time two. First, the strictest test is conducted to determine that the variances and covariances are the same in the scales at Time One and Time Two (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). This test is conducted by testing the assumption that all variances and covariances are equal. If the test is non-significant, the measurements are equivalent and the hypotheses can then be tested in a single model. If there is significance in this test, then a test of configural invariance is needed. This test is a test to determine whether the models of Time One and Time Two have similar fit (Horn & McArdle, 1992).

The next step in testing for measurement invariance is a test of metric invariance. This test is conducted by constraining all variances to be equal between the similar items at Time One and time two. The significance test of interest is a chi-square difference test between the models without constraints and the models with constraints. Scalar invariance can also be tested by constraining the means and intercepts to be equal. However, since the hypothesis of this test is for a change in the means over time, this is not an appropriate test (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Provided these tests of measurement invariance are non-significant (signifying similarity between the measures at Time One and time two), then next step is the confirmatory factor analysis. To further test the structure of the scales, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted on each of the four scales (two times for the CES and two times for the golf attribute scale). Each of the scales has a previously-tested structure. The CFA determines if the relationships among the items is similar to the relationships that have already been proven in the literature. Non-significance in these tests signifies that the reliability and validity are the same as previously tested, and no tests of reliability and validity are necessary.

Structural Equation Modeling

The next step is to test the overall model with all variables. This test indentifies the level of fit between the proposed relationships and those that exist in the actual data. If there is significant difference, then a review further review of the relationships that fail to match is necessary to determine if the empirical evidence is theoretically valid. If there is no theoretical justification for the relationships in the data, then that part of the proposed model should be reconceptualized in order to make appropriate adjustments to the model. If adjustments are necessary, then the steps outlined above must be repeated.

Statistical Tests of the Hypotheses

To aid the discussion the analysis procedures, the hypotheses are stated and followed by the specific testing procedures. The first objective was to determine the

extent that emotional appraisal and attribute appraisal predict satisfaction at Time One and time two. Therefore hypothesis 1 tests this objective at Time One.

H_{01}: Emotional appraisal at Time One accounts for an equal proportion of the variance of immediate satisfaction as attribute appraisal at Time One.

This test will be accomplished by constraining the relationship between emotional appraisal and immediate satisfaction to be equal to the relationship between attribute appraisal and immediate satisfaction. If the model fit shows no significant change, then these relationships are equal.

H_{02}: Emotional appraisal at Time Two accounts for an equal proportion of the variance of reflective satisfaction as attribute appraisal at Time Two.

This test is a repeat of the previous, except using the measurements at Time Two and reflective satisfaction.

The second objective was to determine if the effects of emotional appraisal and attribute appraisal on satisfaction change from Time One to Time Two. Hypothesis 3 represents this test of emotional appraisal.

H_{03}: The proportion of variance accounted for by Emotional Appraisal at Time One and Time Two is unaffected by time.

This test will be accomplished by constraining the relationship between emotional appraisal at Time One and immediate satisfaction equal to the relationship between emotional appraisal at Time Two and reflective satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4 tests the second objective as it pertains to attribute appraisal.

H_{04}: The proportion of variance accounted for by Attribute Appraisal at Time One and Time Two is unaffected by time.

This test is accomplished by constraining the relationship between attribute appraisal at Time One and immediate satisfaction equal to the relationship between attribute appraisal at Time Two and reflective satisfaction.

The third objective is to determine if immediate satisfaction predicts reflective satisfaction or if the appraisals at Time Two predict reflective satisfaction. Hypothesis 5 tests the effect of immediate satisfaction on the appraisals at time two.

H_{05}: Emotional appraisal at Time Two and attribute appraisal at Time Two are unaffected by immediate satisfaction.

This is a simple test of the significance of the relationships between immediate satisfaction and emotional appraisal and the relationship between attribute appraisal and immediate satisfaction. This test is interpreted similar to a regression coefficient.

Hypothesis 6 tests if the effect of immediate satisfaction on reflective satisfaction is dependent on emotional appraisal and attribute appraisal at Time Two.

H_{06}: The relationship between immediate satisfaction and reflective satisfaction is not mediated by emotional appraisal at Time Two or attribute appraisal at Time Two.

This is a test of the mediate effect of emotional appraisal and attribute appraisal at Time Two. This measure is accomplished by examine the percentage of direct effect (between immediate satisfaction and reflective satisfaction) to indirect effect (the paths through attribute and emotional appraisal). A significance test can be performed called the Sobel

Test. If significant, reflective satisfaction is the result of "reappraisal" rather than a reflection on immediate satisfaction.

TABLE 4.3 – Summary of Testing Procedures

Testing Type	*Testing Steps*
Data cleaning	Tests of univariate outliers
	Tests of multivariate outliers
	Tests of normality such as skewness and kurtosis
Missing data	Tests of missing completely at random (MCAR)
	Tests of missing at random (MAR)
Building of measurement model	Incremental addition of items and factors
	Examine fit statistics and factor loadings
	Determine if modification is necessary
	If model requires no further modification examine model for reliability and validity
	Develop specific causal relationships between latent variables
Measurement invariance	Test configural invariance
	Test metric invariance
	Test scalar invariance
Structural testing	Examine fit and parameter estimates of full model
	If the model fails to exhibit sufficient fit, return to measurement model building above
	If the model exhibits sufficient fit, hypothesis testing can begin

CHAPTER FIVE

DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS

This chapter is comprised of three major sections. The first section describes the response rate for the first phase of the study as well as the attrition rate for the second phase. The second section of this chapter describes the sample based on selected demographic, golf and trip characteristics. The final section of this chapter tests non-response biases for both phases of this study.

Response Rate

The data for this study was collected in two phases. The first phase of the study was conducted over four time periods from late March to early May, 2008. Researchers intercepted golfers near the golf car staging area after they completed their round. The number of intercepts reported in Table 5.1 includes only those who were eligible to complete the study, thus excluding non-travelers (local residents), members of the golf club and golfers in the morning group that had tee-times at other facilities in the afternoon. The number of possible intercepts was reported by the facility at the beginning of each data collection time frame. Table 5.1 also reports the number of completed surveys and the response rate for each course, each time period and total.

The number of intercepts for the first phase of the study was 1,428. There were 480 respondents who completed the survey for an overall response rate of 33.6%. The response rates by course were 30.3% at Blackmoor, 44.6% at Caledonia, and 29.6% at True Blue. The first collection date, March 28, had a response rate of 30.7; the second

time of April 4 had a response rate of 29.8%; April 10 and 11 had a response rate of 39.0%; and the response rate for May 2 was 33.2%.

TABLE 5.1 – Response Rates By Location and Dates

Blackmoor			
Date	*Intercepts*	*Responses*	*Response Rate*
March 28	104	42	**40.4%**
April 4	118	35	**29.7%**
April10/11	182	40	**22.0%**
May 2	97	35	**36.1%**
Totals	501	152	**30.3%**
Caledonia			
Date	*Intercepts*	*Responses*	*Response Rate*
March 28	124	48	**38.7%**
April 4	127	39	**30.7%**
April10/11	108	73	**67.6%**
May 2			
Totals	359	160	**44.6%**
True Blue			
Date	*Intercepts*	*Responses*	*Response Rate*
March 28	121	17	**14.0%**
April 4	131	38	**29.0%**
April10/11	190	74	**38.9%**
May 2	126	39	**31.0%**
Totals	568	168	**29.6%**
Total by Time Frame			
Date	*Intercepts*	*Responses*	*Response Rate*
March 28	349	107	**30.7%**
April 4	376	112	**29.8%**
April10/11	480	187	**39.0%**
May 2	223	74	**33.2%**
Totals	1428	480	**33.6%**

When the surveys were administered during the first phase, email addresses were collected from those respondents willing to provide their information necessary to participate in the second phase of the study. Emails were sent to the respondents between 21 to28 days following the initial contact. Of the respondents at Blackmoor, 100 provided email addresses, and 37 completed the online survey for a secondary response rate of 37.0%. Of the respondents at Caledonia, 130 provided email addresses, and 57 completed the online survey for a secondary response rate of 43.8%. At True Blue, 115 respondents provided email addresses, and 35 completed the online survey for a secondary response rate of 30.4%. Overall, 345 email addresses were collected, and 129 online surveys were completed for a response rate of 37.4%.

Description of the Sample

Demographics

The demographic information that was collected included age, number of minors in household, gender, and level of household income. Table 5.2 lists the results for the demographic questions. The golfers in the sample had a mean age of 50.3, were male (93.7%), married (76.8%), white (87.7%) and had a household income level greater than $100,000 (72.0%).

TABLE 5.2 – Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

	Means (standard deviation)			
	All Courses	Blackmoor	Caledonia	True Blue
Mean Age	50.32 (11.2)	50.60 (11.79)	49.56 (10.83)	50.87 (11.07)
	Percentage of Response by Category			
Gender				
Male	93.7	92.3	94.8	94.0
Female	4.1	4.7	3.1	4.4
Marital Status				
Single	10.3	13.0	11.5	6.6
Married	76.8	75.7	77.5	78.8
Separated	1.3	1.2	0.5	2.2
Divorced	7.4	5.3	7.3	9.5
Widowed	1.1	0.6	0.5	2.2
Life Partner	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6
Level of Household Income				
Under $30,000	1.3	2.4	0.0	1.6
$30,000-$49,999	3.3	4.7	2.1	3.3
$50,000-$99,999	15.5	26.0	12.6	8.7
$100,000-$124,999	13.1	16.0	11.0	12.6
$125,000-$149,999	12.5	15.4	9.4	13.1
$150,000 or more	46.4	27.2	58.1	51.9
Ethnic Background				
Black or African American	3.3	6.5	0.0	3.8
Hispanic	1.5	1.2	2.1	1.1
White	87.7	82.8	91.6	88.0
Native American	0.7	1.2	0.5	0.5
Asian	1.3	1.2	1.6	1.1
Other	1.1	1.8	1.0	0.5

** (Standard Deviations for all mean calculations are in parentheses)*

Golf Characteristics

The survey instrument administered at Time One included several questions measuring the respondent's level of golf experience. This group of questions was combined to represent the respondent's golf characteristics. These questions include the following: number of rounds played per year; number of golf vacations in the past five

years; number of golf destinations in the past five years; years of golfing experience; handicap index; self rated ability; and type of course played by both structure and layout type. Table 5.3 lists the results for the golf characteristics. Golfers in the sample averaged 45.7 rounds per year, 6 golf vacations to 3.3 different destinations and have played 23.1 years. The golfers in the sample had primarily handicaps of 11to 20 (51.4%) and only 15.7% had better than a 10 handicap. The golfers also rated themselves as intermediate or advanced golfers (90.0%); they play public access courses (public or semi-private 67.6%); and they play 18-hole regulation-length courses (93.2%).

TABLE 5.3 - Golf-o-Graphic Characteristics of the Sample

	Means			
	All Courses	Blackmoor	Caledonia	True Blue
Number of rounds played per year	45.68 (39.05)	44.75 (46.11)	42.96 (32.22)	49.45 (38.59)
Mean number of golf vacations in past 5 years	6.00 (4.63)	5.36 (4.27)	6.12 (4.19)	6.48 (5.30)
Mean number of golf destinations in past 5 years	3.31 (2.85)	2.94 (2.64)	3.46 (3.07)	3.50 (2.78)
Mean years of golf experience	23.08 (11.95)	21.24 (12.12)	23.34 (12.30)	24.52 (11.24)
	Percentage of Response by Category			
USGA Handicap Index				
Zero or +	1.3	0.0	1.6	2.2
1-5	4.1	3.6	3.7	4.9
6-10	10.3	5.9	10.5	14.2
11-20	51.4	41.4	58.6	53.0
21-30	23.4	33.1	19.4	18.6
More than 30	6.6	11.8	5.2	3.3
Self Rated Ability				
Beginner	6.4	12.4	3.7	3.8
Intermediate	67.0	68.0	70.7	62.3
Advanced	23.0	16.6	23.0	29.0
Expert	1.1	0.6	1.0	1.6
Course structure most frequently played				
Public	42.7	55.6	39.3	34.4
Semi-Private	24.9	25.4	23.0	26.2
Private	26.7	13.0	31.9	33.9
Resort	1.5	1.8	2.1	0.6
Course layout most frequently played				
Regulation 18 hole	93.2	93.5	95.8	90.2
Regulation 9 hole	3.5	1.8	3.1	5.5
Executive	0.2	0.6	0.0	0.0
Par 3	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.5

** (Standard Deviations for all mean calculations are in parentheses)*

Trip Characteristics

The survey included questions concerning the respondent's trip to Myrtle Beach, including length of stay, number of rounds played while visiting, main purpose of the trip and travel mode. The results for the trip characteristic questions are shown in Table 5.4. The golfers in the sample averaged 5.3 days in Myrtle Beach and played 5.4 rounds while visiting. Responses indicated that 84.9 percent of the travel to Myrtle Beach was for a golf vacation, 45.9 percent came by automobile and 45.5 percent came by airline.

TABLE 5.4 – Trip Characteristics of the Sample

	Means (standard deviation)			
	All Courses	Blackmoor	Caledonia	True Blue
Number of days staying in Myrtle Beach	5.31 (2.26)	5.32 (1.88)	5.08 (1.83)	5.54 (2.90)
Rounds of golf played in Myrtle Beach during stay	5.43 (3.28)	5.42 (4.59)	5.55 (2.53)	5.31 (2.57)
	Percentage of Response by Category			
Main purpose of trip to Myrtle Beach				
Family vacation	3.5	4.7	3.1	2.7
Golf Vacation	84.9	75.7	92.7	85.2
Single round of golf	1.3	3.0	1.0	0.0
Business	1.1	1.2	0.5	1.6
Other Attraction				
Other	4.2	7.7	1.6	3.8
Travel mode to Myrtle Beach				
Automobile	45.9	59.2	31.4	48.6
RV/motor home	1.7	3.0	1.0	1.1
Tour Bus	0.7	0.0	0.5	1.6
Airline	45.5	31.4	62.8	40.4
Other	1.5	1.2	0.0	1.6
Preferred mode of vacation travel				
Automobile	37.9	45.6	30.4	38.8
RV/motor home	2.2	4.1	1.6	1.1
Tour bus	2.2	3.0	2.1	1.6
Airline	51.7	43.2	61.8	49.2
Other	1.1	0.6	1.0	1.6

** (Standard Deviations for all mean calculations are in parentheses)*

Non-Response Test

Salant and Dillman (1994) suggested that a response rate of less than 60% can lead to biases because of non-response. Therefore, it is appropriate to conduct non-response bias checks for the sample at both time periods. The variables that will be used for these tests are those appropriate to the study. The demographic variables of age and

income match those that the National Golf Foundation consider to be "golf's best customers" (NGF, 2004). The study sample differs from the national population as reported by the NGF (2004). Therefore, non-response tests for Time One were conducted against members of the golf traveler to Myrtle Beach population rather than the national golf population. The non-response tests for Time Two were conducted between those who completed the Time One survey but didn't complete the Time Two survey and those who completed both phases.

Time One Non-Response Test

In order to complete a non-response test for the Time One respondents, several data points were collected from individuals randomly selected from those who did not to complete the first phase of the study. During the first time period of data collection for the Time One, survey 30 individuals were interviewed for this purpose. The questions were very brief, and the number of items kept to a minimum to allow for a large number of responses. Of the 30 selected individuals, 27 answered the full list of items. These included items pertinent to the study: age, number of annual rounds, ability, self-rated ability, years playing golf, round of golf while in Myrtle Beach, and the number of days in Myrtle Beach.

The results revealed there were no significant differences between respondents and non-respondents with respect to the age ($t_{(421)}$=1.11, p=.266), ability ($x^2_{(5)}$=1.88, p=.865), self-rated ability ($x^2_{(4)}$=1.21, p=.877), years of golf experience ($t_{(512)}$=0.183, p=.855), rounds of golf while in Myrtle Beach ($t_{(488)}$=0.93, p=.351), and number of days staying in Myrtle Beach ($t_{(491)}$=.96, p=.338). One variable revealed significant

differences between the respondents and non-respondents: number of annual rounds of golf, ($t_{(515)}$=2.69, p=.007) . The average number of rounds of golf played per year for respondents (48.1) was significantly higher than non-respondents (26.8) ,which may bias the results. As a result, some caution should be taken in interpreting the results because those who responded play more golf on a annual basis. Overall, the results support that the respondents and non-respondents are similar.

Time Two Non-Response Test

The non-response test for the Time Two survey used the same variables as above: age, number of annual rounds, ability, self-rated ability, years playing golf, round of golf while in Myrtle Beach, and the number of days in Myrtle Beach. The results revealed there were no significant differences between respondents and non-respondents with respect to the ability ($x^2_{(5)}$=9.63, p=.086), self-rated ability ($x^2_{(4)}$=4.40, p=.355), years of golf experience ($t_{(550)}$=0.76, p=.448), rounds of golf while in Myrtle Beach ($t_{(524)}$=0.31, p=.760), and number of days staying in Myrtle Beach ($t_{(527)}$=0.38, p=.705). Two variables revealed significant differences between the respondents and non-respondents; age ($t_{(445)}$=3.28, p<.001), and number of annual rounds of golf, ($t_{(552)}$=2.80, p=.005). Overall, the results support that the respondents and non-respondents of the Time Two survey are similar. The number of rounds of golf played per year for respondents (57.6) was significantly higher than non-respondents (45.7), and respondents were significantly older (53.8), than non-respondents (49.9), which may bias the results. The respondents are older with higher levels of annual rounds of golf which might introduce a bias toward a more experienced golfer.

Tests of Collection Site Similarity

To ensure similarity of the sample between each of the three collection sites, chi-square and *t*-tests were conducted between each of the demographic, golf and trip characteristic variables. Additional tests of univariate scale responses were conducted to ensure similarities of the samples.

Of the demographic variables, only one question contained significant differences between golf courses. A chi-square analysis of the level of household income indicated that the income was higher at Caledonia and True Blue than at Blackmoor (x^2=49.25, df=10 p=.000). Several of the golf-o-graphic questions contained significant differences amoung golfers at the three courses. An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's post hoc analysis shows that golfers at True Blue had a significantly greater average for years of experience than at Blackmoor (F=3.275, p=.039). A chi-square analysis indicated that the USGA handicap (x^2=35.87, df=10 p<.001) and self rated ability (x^2=23.22, df=10 p=.003) both were significantly different amoung Caledonia, True Blue and Blackmoor. Based on this finding, it can be stated that the golfers at Caledonia and True Blue had lower handicaps and rated themselves as better golfers. One question in the trip characteristic section showed significant differences amoung courses. A chi-square test showed that more golfers at Caledonia came to Myrtle Beach via airline than did golfers who played Blackmoor (x^2=42.15, df=8 p<.001).

Following the work of Faircloth and Richard (Faircloth, et al., 1995; Richard & Faircloth, 1994), the feelings of satisfaction with individual course attributes were gauged by measuring the level of agreement on a seven-point scale (1=strongly

dissagree/7=strongly agree) with specific statements such as “The speed of play is to my liking.” One additional statement was added to the list from previous studies: “The maintenance staff was courteous and unobtrusive.” The statements that had the highest average level of agreement were “The attitude of the other golfers was friendly” (5.6) and “The condition of the fairways is excellent” (5.5). The full list of results to the attribute satisfaction ratings can be found in Table 5.5.

Many of the attribute satisfaction statements showed significant levels of difference amoung golfers at the three courses. A full report of significant findings can be found in Table 5.5. Several of the notable differences include the agreement with the statement “the speed of play is to my liking,” in which golfers at True Blue were in less agreement with the statement than those at Blackmoor ($p=.001$); and golfers at Caledonia were also in less agreement with the statement than those at Blackmoor ($p=.028$). The agreement with the statement “the condition of the greens is excellent” was significantly lower at Blackmoor than at Caledonia ($p<.001$) and True Blue ($p<.001$) as well as lower at True Blue than at Caledonia ($p<.001$).

TABLE 5.5 - Response Summary of Golf Course Attribute Performance Scale

	Mean response on 7 point importance scale (1=strongly dissagree/7=strongly agree)			
	All Courses	Blackmoor	Caledonia	True Blue
The speed of play is to my liking.	4.61 (1.55)	4.96*# (1.47)	4.54* (1.57)	4.37# (1.56)
The price of play is reasonable for a course of this quality.	4.65 (1.33)	4.58 (1.34)	4.76 (1.37)	4.60 (1.27)
Getting convenient tee times is not a major problem.	4.62 (1.45)	4.53 (1.50)	4.73 (1.47)	4.60 (1.36)
The course is conveniently located.	4.85 (1.37)	4.86 (1.37)	4.96 (1.31)	4.72 (1.42)
The course is not too long in terms of yardage.	5.08 (1.51)	5.01 (1.59)	5.33* (1.43)	4.88* (1.48)
The course layout fits my style of play (e.g. width, hazards, etc.).	4.96 (1.31)	4.86* (1.29)	5.25*# (1.25)	4.74# (1.33)
The condition of the greens is excellent.	4.71 (1.91)	2.99*# (1.66)	6.07*+ (1.02)	4.88#+ (1.58)
The condition of the fairways is excellent.	5.52 (1.29)	4.95*# (1.33)	6.15*+ (1.02)	5.38#+ (1.21)
The course difficulty is appropriate for my level of play.	5.17 (1.25)	4.89* (1.26)	5.42* (1.17)	5.16 (1.28)
The attitude of other golfers is friendly.	5.56 (1.15)	5.57 (1.19)	5.66 (1.10)	5.46 (1.17)
The course is designed by a well known designer.	5.05 (1.49)	5.58*# (1.32)	4.86* (1.60)	4.75# (1.41)
The golf pro has helped me improve my game.	2.72 (1.84)	2.66 (1.79)	2.71 (1.88)	2.78 (1.85)
The course was recommended by someone I respect.	4.61 (1.95)	3.85*# (1.92)	5.28*+ (1.69)	4.58#+ (1.97)
The restaurant or food service is excellent.	4.63 (1.49)	4.64 (1.40)	4.72 (1.53)	4.52 (1.51)
The course has several amenities, such as a pool, tennis courts, etc.	3.12 (1.81)	2.99 (1.72)	2.96 (1.87)	3.39 (1.79)
I enjoy shopping at the pro shop.	3.82 (1.71)	3.56 (1.69)	3.94 (1.75)	3.94 (1.67)
The practice facilities are excellent.	4.08 (1.64)	3.95* (1.38)	3.67# (1.91)	4.61*# (1.40)
The maintenance staff was courteous and unobtrusive.	5.22 (1.45)	5.14 (1.54)	5.37 (1.40)	5.14 (1.41)

(Standard Deviations for all mean calculations are in parentheses)

**,#,+ indicate significant differences of <.05 between the pairs with the same notation*

Each of the four overall satisfaction questions were on different seven-point scales to encourage the golfer to think about the overall experience in several different ways. The results for the overall satisfaction questions can be found in Table 5.6. Overall impression (1=worse than expected/7=better than expected) averaged 5.42; overall experience (1=terrible/7=delightful) averaged 4.49; overall satisfaction (1=very dissatisfied/7=very satisfied) averaged 5.04; and overall level of pleasure (1=very displeased/7=very pleased) averaged 5.29. The likelihood of return (1=very unlikely/2=very likely) averaged 5.90, and the likelihood to recommend (1=very unlikely/2=very likely) averaged 5.94. The golfers rated their play (1=very bad/7=very good) at 4.35.

Most of the overall satisfaction statements showed significant levels of difference among golfers at the three courses. A full report of significant findings can be found in Table 5.6. The golfers who played Caledonia had significantly higher ratings of satisfaction than Blackmoor in all four of the satisfaction questions (all were $p<.001$). These golfers also rated satisfaction higher than at True Blue for the overall impression and overall experience category ($p=.001$). However, the satisfaction ratings between golfers who played Blackmoor and those who played True Blue were statistically the same, except for higher ratings at True Blue for overall impression ($p=.010$).

TABLE 5.6 – Response Summary of Satisfaction Scale

	Mean response on 7 point scale			
	All Courses	Blackmoor	Caledonia	True Blue
Overall impression (1=worse than expected/ 7=better than expected)	5.42 (1.22)	4.96*# (1.19)	5.92*+ (1.14)	5.32#+ (1.14)
Overall experience (1=terrible/7=delightful)	5.49 (1.21)	5.13* (1.22)	5.95*# (1.10)	5.32# (1.17)
Overall satisfaction (1=very dissatisfied 7=very satisfied)	5.04 (1.49)	4.80* (1.46)	5.26* (1.57)	5.03 (1.42)
Overall level of pleasure (1=very displeased 7=very pleased)	5.29 (1.27)	5.07* (1.28)	5.61*# (1.20)	5.15# (1.25)
Likelihood of return (1=very unlikely 7=very likely)	5.90 (1.45)	5.45* (1.56)	6.50*# (0.98)	5.68# (1.56)
Likelihood of recommending (1=very unlikely 7=very likely)	5.94 (1.44)	5.36*# (1.59)	6.55*+ (0.93)	5.82#+ (1.50)
Level of play vs. normal (1=very bad/7=very good)	4.35 (1.33)	4.43 (1.28)	4.36 (1.34)	4.25 (1.37)

** (Standard Deviations for all mean calculations are in parentheses)*

**,#,+ indicate significant differences of <.05 between the pairs with the same notation*

Summary

This chapter described the sample in terms of demographic, golf-o-graphic and trip characteristic variables. With the general parameters presented, the next step was to conduct tests of feasibility for the remainder of the study. These tests include non-response tests and tests of sample similarity.

CHAPTER SIX

DATA SCREENING AND PREPARATION

This chapter discusses the procedures necessary for data preparation starting with methods for indentifying and handling univariate and multivariate outliers and multivariate influential cases. The next section addresses the procedures for testing the missing data to make sure that data imputation did not affect the overall variance and covariance of the variables. The third section addresses the concepts of reliability and validity and how they were handled in this study. The fourth section outlines the procedures and results for building the measurement models that were necessary for testing the hypotheses. The final section of this chapter examines the overall appropriateness of the model.

Outliers and Influential Cases

The need for addressing outliers and influential cases has been reviewed in some detail with regards to linear procedures such as regression (see Frees, 1996; Pardoe, 2006). Outliers are data points that lie outside of the normal distribution of scores (Pardoe, 2006). Univariate outliers are those cases that have a single atypical data point. These outliers are identified by looking at distributions of scores such as histograms, box plots, and/or scatter plots. Any point that lies outside of the normal distribution (generally +/- 3 standard deviations) (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003) signifies a cause for concern because this leads to biased results (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Additional caution must be exercised when using covariate matrix analysis procedures such as structural equation modeling (Hatcher, 1994; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In review of the assumptions of these procedures, Finney and Distefano (2006) point out the importance of the normality of the data. One common estimation technique used in SEM, as well as in this study, is maximum likelihood. This technique is susceptible to violations to the normal distribution and thus can lead to an increased probability of a Type I error (Finney & DiStefano, 2006; Yuan & Bentler, 2001). Because of the sensitivity of maximum likelihood techniques to non-normality, it is necessary to screen for cases that might exhibit excessive influence on the normal distribution of the data.

To ensure that the study sample displayed sufficient homogeneity, several of the demographic variables were examined for univariate outliers: number of annual rounds, number of golf vacations in past five years, number of days staying in Myrtle Beach, and number of rounds played while in Myrtle Beach. Each of these was examined by looking at histograms and box plots. There were three cases that had an atypical number of rounds per year (case 139 reported 203 rounds per year, case 177 and 473 reported 200 rounds per year), one case that stayed in Myrtle Beach for more days (case 472 stayed for 32 days), and three cases that took an atypical number of vacations (case 341 reported 40 golf vacations, cases 560 and 467 reported 30 golf vacations over the past 5 years). Case 472 was removed because the length of stay was similar to other seasonal residents which had been removed previously. The other cases were flagged for further analysis with multivariate diagnoses.

For multivariate outliers, each of the three scales used for hypothesis testing were subjected to tests of leverage using Mahalanobis distance, discrepancy using studentized deleted residuals, and influence such as Cook's distance and DFFITS. When the variables in a dataset are combined case by case in multidimensional space, they tend to swarm around a centroid (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). When the distance between a case's position is atypically distant from this centroid, then this case is considered a multivariate outlier. Mahalanobis distance is one measure of this distance. Excessive leverage is another measure and occurs when a case's observed values are atypically far away from the means of the values for the rest of the data set (Cohen, et al., 2003); it is captured using Mahalanobis distance. Influence is a combination of the influence of multidimensional distance and leverage, and is often measured with Cook's distance.

Another measure of normality of the data is kurtosis. The structural equation software program EQS provides statistics that identify cases that demonstrate excessive influence on the overall multivariate kurtosis of the data. Fifteen cases were removed because of excessive influence, and ten cases were removed due to excessive influence on kurtosis. Through each of these steps, twenty-five cases were excluded from further analysis which constituted 4.61% of the data. After the data cleaning procedures, the data set was reduced to 518 cases for further analysis.

Tests of Missing Data

The next step in the data preparation process was to examine the dataset for missing values. Primarily, the missing data values need to be examined for any patterns of "missingness" (Schafer & Graham, 2002). There are three types of missing data that

can account for a range of patterns that might be associated with other variables in the data set: missing at random (MAR), missing completely at random (MCAR), and missing not at random (MNAR) (R. J. Little & Rubin, 1987). The necessity to determine patterns of missing data might influence the outcome of other variables (e.g., a mediation effect not accounted for in the proposed model that leads to item non-response). These outcomes might influence the levels of measured variance in the model. Therefore, the tests of MCAR and MAR determine if data can be imputed to increase the sample size (Schafer & Graham, 2002). For this study, the sample is not as large as preferred for ideal maximum likelihood estimation therefore tests for the possibility of imputation of missing data will be completed.

The hypothesized model was subjected to a missing data test to determine if the data was missing completely at random. As Bentler (2006) reports, the null hypothesis for MCAR is that there is no relationship between the patterns in observed data and the patterns in missing data. The test shows that the hypothesis was rejected (X^2=47203.9, p>.001), indicating that the missing data has a definite pattern. The next step is to verify the patterns in the data to examine the possibilities of MAR. Where MCAR is a test that the variable is related to other variables, MAR is a test that the missingness of the variable is related to itself (Schafer & Graham, 2002). For example, in the pretest, the item in the emotion scale of "sexy" demonstrated atypically high missingness and could be due to the term itself attributing to non-response in the golf traveler setting. Because of this relationship of the variable with itself, there is no statistical test of MAR. All assumptions must be made on theoretical grounds.

Further analysis of the missing data revealed unusually high levels of missing data for the course attribute items of "the golf pro helped me with my game" and "the course had amenities such as pool, tennis courts, etc." These are theoretically justified violations of MAR. These items were not important to golf travelers who neither need nor want help from the golf professional and are not looking for these types of amenities when traveling. Therefore, these items should be considered for removal before the remainder of the missing data is imputed. After examination of the missing data patterns, several cases were eliminated because of high levels of non response; 2 cases answered on 2 items on any of the scales and 2 other cases only answered 4 items on any of the scales. These cases were also excluded from further analysis.

After removal of these cases the data set satisfied the characteristics of MAR and therefore the remaining missing data was imputed using the Maximum Likelihood Estimation method with expectation maximization (EM) algorithm procedure through the EQS program (Cohen, et al., 2003).

Reliability and Validity

Once the data was checked for normality and the missing data tested and imputed, the next necessary step was to check the quality of the data in regard to the proposed model. Reliability and validity are measures of the ability of the items to measure a phenomenon. Reliability refers to the proportion of measured variance that is not attributed to random error (Raines-Eudy, 2000) and is referred to as true score variance. Validity refers to the ability that the true score variance comes from the intended covariance (DeVellis, 2003). In simple terms, validity is the ability of a measure to

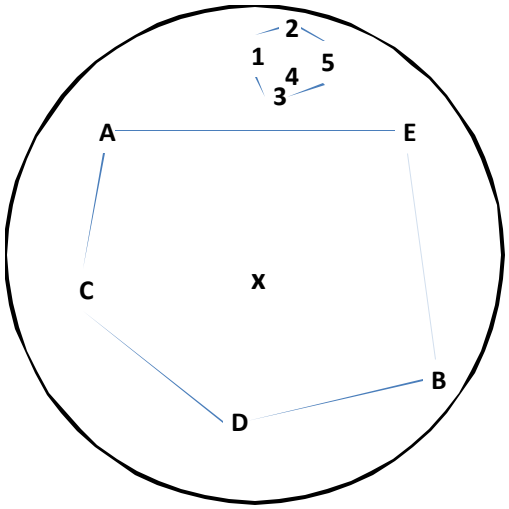
capture what was it is intended to capture and how well it does so (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997) and reliability is the ability of an item to repeatedly measure the same thing.

Reliability is often measured using the formula of Cronbach's alpha, which simply reports the proportion of the variance that is true score variance (DeVellis, 2003). However, there is no guarantee that the true score variance is attributed to the hypothesized construct rather than some other relationship. In order to verify that the measured true score is attributed to the hypothesized construct, tests of validity are necessary. The primary overall concept of validity is that of construct validity, which contains several aspects: content validity, face validity, and convergent/discriminant validity. Content validity addresses whether items actually come from the correct domain and is assessed using expert opinion and extensive literature review (Kline, 2004). Face validity addresses when a measure looks as though it belongs to the construct domain (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997). Convergent validity is assessed by examining the inter-correlations for moderate levels of relationship between other variables within the construct where divergent validity is the low inter-correlation between variables of different constructs.

There is a strong relationship between the concepts of reliability and validity. However, there are disagreements as to the exact nature of the relationship. Kline (2004) states that reliability is necessary but insufficient for validity. This perspective is shared by other researchers such as Devellis (2003), Fishman and Galguera (2003), who state that reliability is the upper bound of validity. This viewpoint is in direct opposition to the perspectives of Babbie (2005) and Little, Lindenberger and Nesselroade (1999), who see

validity as related but not dependent on reliability. For example, if the circle in Figure 6.1 represents the space that contains the domain *Y* and the X represents the true centroid, then the items 1-6 represent reliable scores that are not near the centroid of the construct. However, items A-E represent items that are centered on the construct centroid, but have low reliability. This example highlights the importance in checking both for reliability and validity before proceeding with hypothesis tests.

FIGURE 6.1 - Representation of the Reliability and Validity Debate



*Adapted from Little, Lindenberger and Nellelroade, 1999

Measurement Model Testing and Adjustment

This section will discuss the issues of reliability and validity for each individual scale. The hypotheses involve six seperate scales: Richin's emotion scale at Time One, Faircloth and Richard's golf course attribute scale at Time One, immediate satisfaction at

Time One, Richin's emotion scale at Time Two, Faircloth and Richard's golf course attribute scale at Time Two, and reflective satisfaction at Time Two.

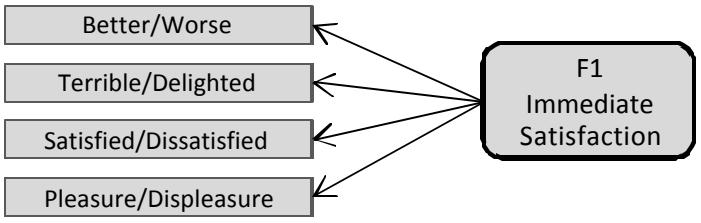
The cleaned and prepared data set displayed moderate non-normal kurtosis for each of the models tested. Therefore, all of the results that are reported for the model building process follow the recommendations of Kline (2004) and Bentler (2005) in reporting the robust statistics that include adjustments in the chi-square, CFI and RMSEA fit statistics. The chi-square statistic that will be reported is the Satorra-Bentler chi-square, which is specifically formulated to adjust for non-normal kurtosis. The CFI is a relative fit statistic that is a comparison of the model chi-square to the null chi-square (the chi-square of the model with no estimates). The adjusted CFI uses the Satorra-Bentler chi-square for comparison with the null model. Models with a CFI of greater of .9 are considered to contain good fit to the data. The RMSEA is a measure of the error that occurs during the approximation process. Models with an RMSEA of less than 0.10 are considered to have good fit to the data. The standardized mean-square residual (SRMR) is a measure of the remaining error that is not explained in the tested model expressed as a standardized estimate. There is no adjustment for SRMR because the residuals are unaffected by normality issues. Acceptable levels of residuals reported by the SRMR should be less than 0.10 (see Byrne, 2006; Kline, 2004; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001 for a discussion of acceptable fit).

Overall Satisfaction at Time One

The satisfaction scale contained 4 items measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale. This scale measures the overall satisfaction at Time One, which will serve as the

dependent variable for the Time One model. This scale has simple structure. The proposed structure is represented in Figure 6.2.

FIGURE 6.2 - Proposed Satisfaction Scale Structure



This model as proposed has poor fit to the data (x2=254.65, CFI=.801, SRMR=.108, RMSEA=.491). Examination of the LaGrange Multiplier test for adding parameters indicates a covariance between the error terms of satisfied/dissatisfied and pleasure/displeasure. After adding the relationship to the model, most of the remaining error is captured, and thus the fit is acceptable (X^2=0.08, CFI=1.00, SRMR=.000, RMSEA=.000). This level of fit indicates preparation for addition to the full model.

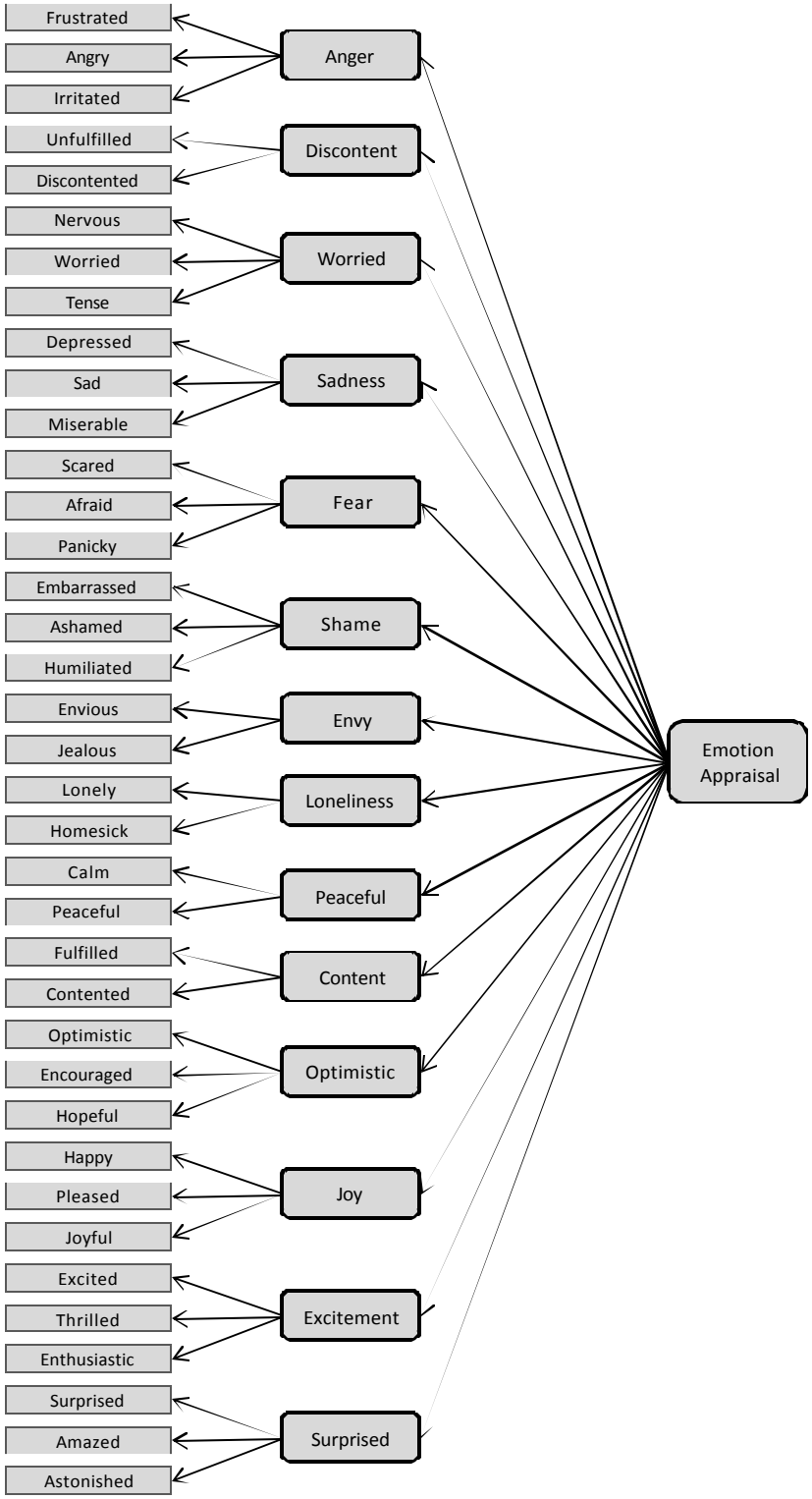
CES Emotion Scale at Time One

Emotions were measured using an adaptation of Richins' Consumption Emotion Scale (CES), which contains 43 items. After the pilot test, six items and the discrete emotions of "love" and "romantic love" were removed because of low face validity and poor relation to overall emotion. The tested scale contains 37 items and 14 emotion factors as represented in Figure 6.3. The measures for each of the discrete emotions were first analyzed for reliability. The reliability scores from Richins' original CES scale are reported in Table 6.1, along with the initial results from the collected data.

TABLE 6.1 - Reliability Scores of Richins' CES and the Tested Score

Emotion Factor	*CES Reliability*	*Tested Reliability*
Anger	0.87	0.79
Discontent	0.67	0.70
Worried	0.77	0.77
Sadness	0.72	0.85
Fear	0.74	0.85
Shame	0.85	0.85
Envy	0.46	0.71
Loneliness	0.59	0.71
Peaceful	0.68	0.50
Contentment	0.58	0.61
Optimistic	0.86	0.72
Joy	0.88	0.76
Excitement	0.89	0.79
Surprise	0.81	0.73

FIGURE 6.3 – Proposed Emotion Scale Structure



The next step is to begin testing the model for fit to the data. In order to examine the interactions between variables, each separate factor is added to the model one at a time following the recommendations of Hatcher (1994). This approach allows easier identification of items that either load poorly on the intended factor or cross load heavily on other factors. During this process item "humiliated" was removed because of excessive cross loading on the emotion of "sadness" and does not load on the emotion of "shame" as proposed. After all fourteen emotion factors were added to the model, it was found that "hopeful" also displayed excessive cross loading with the emotion of "surprise".

During these iterative steps several error covariances were found between items in the scale. When these covariances occur, it is generally a sign that the residual errors have a common variance, thus suggesting a common cause. Once the full model was constructed and the appropriate error covariances and factor covariances were examined, it became apparent that the positive emotions demonstrate high intercorrelation. Similarly negative emotions demonstrate high intercorrelations, but positive emotions are not strongly related to negative emotions. Therefore, a separation of the positive emotions and negative emotions was necessary because of bi-dimensional relationship. Therefore the next step was to explore the possibilities of a model with two higher order factors.

This re-specification of the model follows marketing literature that views affect as a bi-dimensional construct (Mano & Oliver, 1993; Oliver, 1993; Phillips & Baumgartner, 2002; Watson, et al., 1988; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). The data collected represent this view of emotions much closer than the one factor semantic differential view of emotions.

After re-specifying the model, it was found that the emotion "surprise" loaded on neither the positive of negative dimension and therefore it was eliminated along with the corresponding items: surprise, amazed and astonished.

Further examination of the model revealed common error variance between positive items that appeared sequentially in the scale. Although the items in the emotion scale were randomized, it was apparent that there was a certain amount of conditioning for sequential positive emotional items. It was necessary to represent this method bias in the model, which will remove the explained variance related to this bias. This is represented by a separate factor that is related to all positive items, and a second factor that is related to all negative items in the scale. This strategy substantially increased the fit of the model and highlighted additional items of concern.

When examining the positive portion of the scale, the items "excited" and "thrilled" were both removed due to low correlation to the intended emotion "excitement". It was also found that the item "joyful" loaded highly on the emotion "excitement" but not on the emotion "joy." The loadings in the model were changed accordingly. The emotion factors display moderate discriminate validity, which is shown through low correlation between factors as shown in Table 6.2.

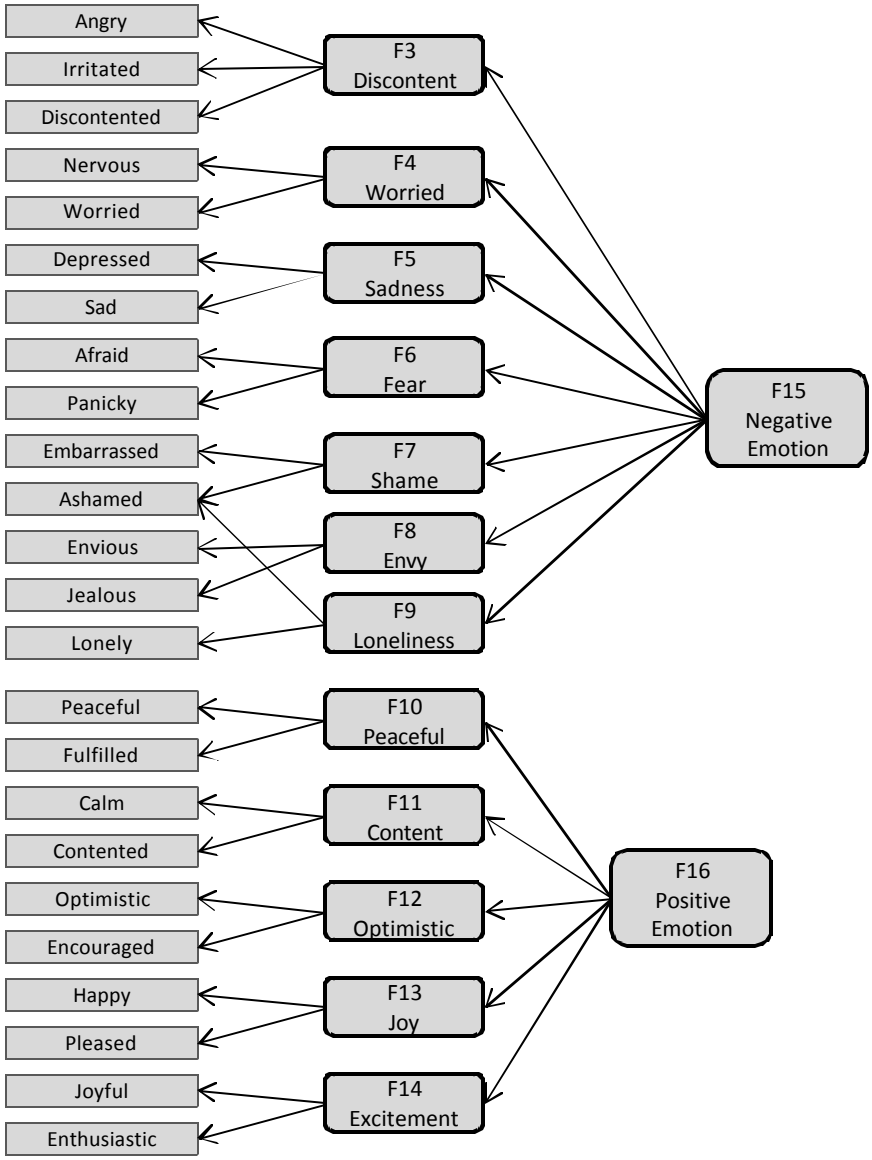
TABLE 6.2 – Discriminant Validity Estimates of the Emotion Factors

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7
F1-Anger	XX						
F2-Discontent	0.929	XX					
F3-Worried	0.740	0.803	XX				
F4-Sadness	0.873	0.965	0.852	XX			
F5-Fear	0.642	0.726	0.935	0.831	XX		
F6-Shame	0.672	0.684	0.711	0.758	0.736	XX	
F7-Envy	0.630	0.722	0.839	0.810	0.893	0.735	XX
F8-Loneliness	0.648	0.760	0.859	0.884	0.978	0.749	0.968
F9-Peacefulness	-0.327	-0.383	-0.148	-0.278	-0.018	-0.063	-0.100
F10-Contentment	-0.449	-0.474	-0.175	-0.377	-0.071	-0.170	-0.135
F11-Optimistic	-0.240	-0.284	-0.006	-0.191	0.036	-0.054	0.034
F12-Joy	-0.403	-0.514	-0.192	-0.429	-0.125	-0.219	-0.191
F13-Excitement	-0.317	-0.372	-0.021	-0.273	0.045	-0.071	-0.029
F14-Surprise	0.159	0.194	0.445	0.291	0.467	0.293	0.411

	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12	F13	F14
F1-Anger							
F2-Discontent							
F3-Worried							
F4-Sadness							
F5-Fear							
F6-Shame							
F7-Envy							
F8-Loneliness	XX						
F9-Peacefulness	-0.018	XX					
F10-Contentment	-0.094	0.988	XX				
F11-Optimistic	-0.007	0.742	0.811	XX			
F12-Joy	-0.214	0.756	0.985	0.819	XX		
F13-Excitement	-0.048	0.843	0.945	0.758	0.898	XX	
F14-Surprise	0.389	0.394	0.469	0.415	0.374	0.609	XX

When examining the negative portion of the scale items, "tense," "miserable," "homesick" and "scared" displayed low loading on the intended factors and moderate cross loading on other factors. These items were then dropped. Examination of the emotion "anger" displayed little correlation with the higher order negative factor. Further examination showed that the item "angry" loaded highly with the emotion "discontent," thus the model was adjusted to represent this loading. This change left the emotion "discontent" with a low relationship to any other portion of the model except the item "frustrated." Both the emotion "angry" and the item "frustrated" were dropped as well as "unfulfilled" because of low correlation to the emotion "discontent." The discriminate validity scores are presented in the Figure 6.4, which displays the re-specified model used for the hypothesis tests.

FIGURE 6.4 – Re-specified Emotion Structure



Faircloth & Richard's Golf Course Attribute Scale at Time One

Golf course attribute performance appraisal was measured using Faircloth, Richard & Richard's scale, which contains 17 items to measure the factors of Access, Course, People, and Extras. The proposed structure for this scale can be found in Figure 6.5 . The reliability scores for this scale can be found in Table 6.3.

FIGURE 6.5 - Proposed Structure of Golf Course Attribute Performance Appraisal

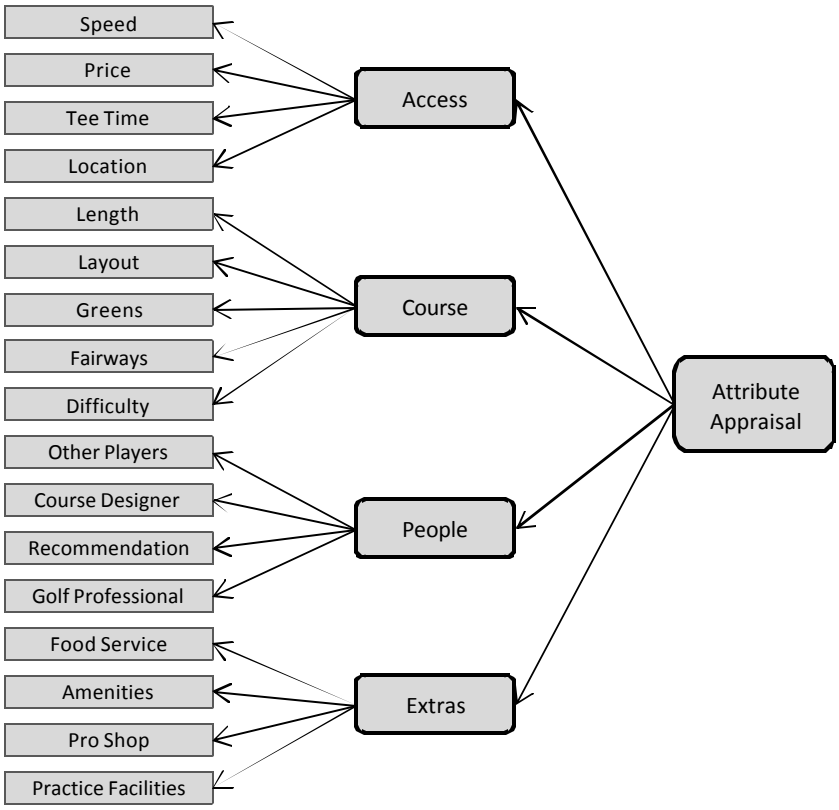


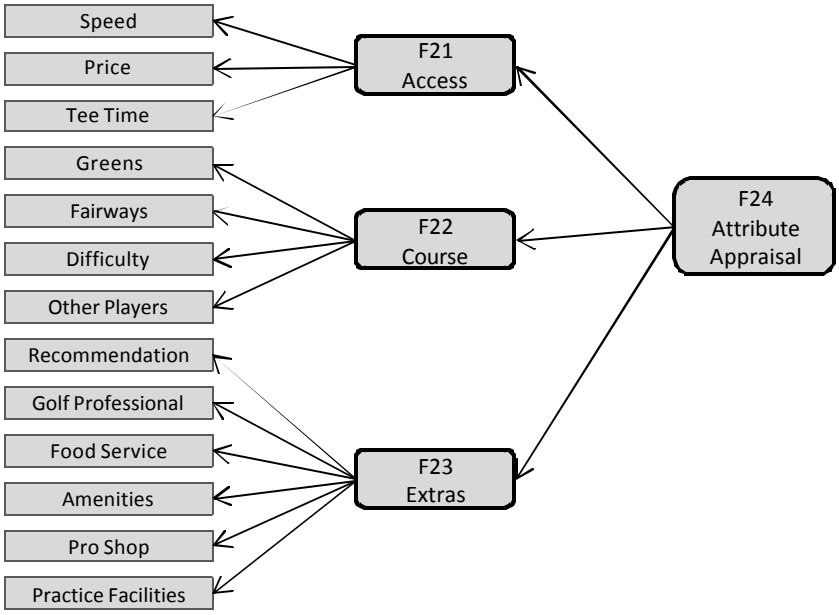
TABLE 6.3 - Reliability Scores of the Golf Course Attribute Appraisal Factors

Model Factor	*Faircloth Alpha*	*Initial Alpha*
Factor 16.1 Access	0.78	0.59
Factor 17.1 Course	0.74	0.71
Factor 18.1 People	0.80	0.37
Factor 19.1 Others	0.75	0.67

Following the procedures recommended by Hatcher (1994), each separate factor was added to the model one at a time. This method allowed for easier identification of items that either loaded poorly on the intended factor, or cross loaded heavily on other factors. During this process, a method bias in the shared variance was found similar to the variance found in the emotion scale. This method bias was found to share the same source of error as the positive emotion items. Any error covariances were removed, and a method variance factor was implemented, which increased fit dramatically.

After accounting for the method bias, the items of "location" and "designer" were removed because of low correlation with any factor in the model. The item of "length" was removed because it was shown to capture the same explained variance as difficulty. The item of "others" was more strongly related to the "course" factor than the proposed "people" factor. The "pro" and "recommendation" items loaded strongly on the "extras" factor and not the "people" factor. The factor of "people" was then removed because the items that measure this factor are more closely related to other factors. The re-specified model can be found in Figure 6.6.

FIGURE 6.6 – Re-specified Golf Course Attribute Performance Appraisal Scale



Measure Models for Time Two Scales

The Time Two scales required no further testing of model fit. The next step in preparation of the Time Two models is to focus on the procedures of testing for measurement invariance to ensure that the structure of the model is the same or similar at both times. This discussion can be found at the beginning of Chapter Seven.

CHAPTER 7

TESTING THE HYPOTHESES

This chapter includes two major sections: the first is a discussion of the process used to ensure that the scales measure the same constructs at both Time One and Time Two and the second is a discussion of the hypothesis tests. The testing of the scale measurement will be addressed on a scale-by-scale basis starting with the satisfaction scale, then the emotion scale and finally the golf course attribute scale. The hypothesis tests are discussed as addressing the three major objectives of this dissertation.

Measurement Invariance

The testing of the hypotheses required the use of the same scales tested separately at two different times. These tests are appropriate only if there is some level of congruency between the constructs measured at Time One and the constructs measured at time two. This process of testing the scales is referred to as measurement invariance (Kline, 2004). Vandenberg and Lance (2000) outlined the process of these tests following extensive literature review of articles written specifically about invariance testing as well as research that uses the invariance testing techniques.

Although the review conducted by Vandenberg and Lance highlights the many differences in the exact details of the testing procedure, there are several similarities that should be included in all tests of measurement invariance. The first recommended step is to look at the invariance of the covariance of matrices of the two times. This test is

considered the most strict of tests because of the need for the measured relationships to be identical. For this study, this test was not implemented because of the hypothesized variations in the structural portion of the matrices. The removal of this step follows general practice in the literature because only 22% of the studies examined in the Vandenberg and Lance review performed this test (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000).

The second step in testing measurement invariance involves looking at the pattern of fixed and free factor loadings between each time period. This test is referred to as "configural invariance" and is conducted by examining the fit statistics between the measurement portions of the models between time periods (Byrne, 2006; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). As can be seen in Table 7.1, the models are similar, but they do not demonstrate identical configuration. The Time Two measurement model has 6 fewer degrees of freedom because of an increased number of covariances. This difference is also reflected in the differences in Satorra-Bentler chi-square values (X^2 for Time One=1947.7 vs. X^2 for Time Two=2251.1), CFI (CFI for Time One=.996 vs. CFI for Time Two=.975), and RMSEA (.086 for Time One vs .097 for Time Two). These differences are primarily focused on the negative emotion portion of Richin's CES.

The following chi-square difference tests use the Satorra-Bentler chi-square adjustment because of the excessive kurtosis of the sample data. The generally accepted kurtosis estimate is the normalized Mardia's Coefficient. This estimate is normalized, and thus is similar to a z-score, and studies have shown that estimates of less than 5 are still appropriate for normalized estimation procedures (Kline, 2004). The Time One sample had a normalized Mardia's coefficient of 18.1, and at Time Two the estimate is 24.7, and

thus robust estimates including the Satorra-Bentler correction will be used for the invariance tests.

The third step in testing measurement invariance is a test of measurement invariance. This test is conducted by constraining all freely estimated factor loadings in Time One to the corresponding factor loading in Time Two. This statistical test is conducted by comparing the chi-square value of the restricted model with the general model (Byrne, 2006). Table 7.1 displays configural summation model statistics, representing the full model with no constraints in line one (S-B X^2=4249.23, df=1445, CFI=.995). This model served as the model for comparison to the following increasingly restrictive tests. The model that includes the measurement invariance constraints has a significantly different fit than the general model (S-B X^2=4558.37, df=1465, CFI=.995) with and adjusted Satorra-Bentler chi-square difference of 291.25 with 20 degrees of freedom (p<.001). Although the difference was significant, there is some level of similarity as demonstrated in the lack of change in the CFI value and RMSEA supporting further tests of structural invariance.

TABLE 7.1 - Measurement Invariance Results

Model	*df*	*S-B x 2*	*CFI*	*SRMR*	*RMSEA**		*? df*	*? S-B x 2*	*p=*
Time 1 model	725	1947.7344	0.996	0.101	0.086	(.081,.091)	-	-	-
Time 2 model	719	2251.0866	0.975	0.096	0.097	(.092,.101)	-	-	-
Base Model for Invariance Comparison	1445	4249.2347	0.995	0.099	0.092	(.089,.095)	-	-	-
Measurment Invariance	1465	4558.3669	0.995	0.117	0.096	(.093,.099)	20	4.282022	<.0001
Weak Structural Invariance	1476	4588.436	0.995	0.118	0.096	(.093,.099)	31	7.455389	<.0001
Strong Structural Invariance	1479	4594.404	0.995	0.119	0.096	(.093,.099)	34	8.264722	<.0001

**95% confidence interval around the RMSEA*

Tests of structural invariance deal with the configuration of the structural portion of the model (Byrne, 2006). The structural factor loadings between the first order factors and the second order factors were constrained to be equal in addition to the constraints imposed in previous steps. As expected, the chi-square difference test is significant (S-B X^2=4588.4, df=1476, CFI=.995) but shows no sign of difference in the CFI fit statistic. An additional level of structural constraints was added between the second order factors and the dependent variables. This test, although significant different from the base model, exhibited little change from the lower level of structural constraint (S-B X^2=4594.4, df=1479, CFI=.995).

These tests of invariance indicate that there are differences in the measurement and structural portions between the Time One model and Time Two model. This difference is to be expected because of the hypothesized variations between the relationships in the structural portion of the model. Hypothesis testing was possible

because of the relative similarity of the models as shown through configural invariance and some levels of measurement invariance.

Objective 1 – Equal Influence on Satisfaction

The first objective for this dissertation was to determine the extent that emotional and attribute appraisal influence satisfaction at Time One and time two. The full model as described above was tested looking at constraints on the appropriate portions of the model.

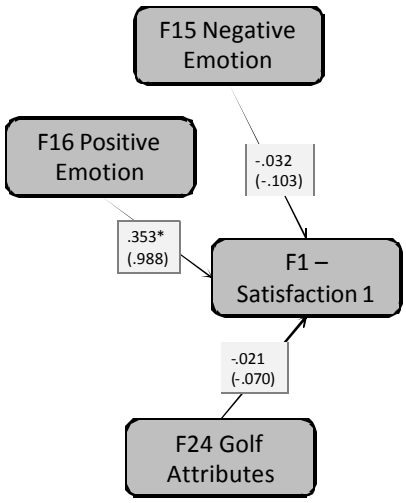
Hypothesis 1 - Equal Influence on Satisfaction at Time One

Hypothesis One pertains to the loadings on Factor 1, immediate satisfaction, and was tested by constraining all of these loadings equal to each other.

H1: Emotional appraisal at Time One accounts for an equal proportion of the variance of immediate satisfaction as attribute appraisal at Time One.

For the purpose of this test, the model was adjusted slightly to ensure testing of magnitude of influence regardless of direction. This adjustment was accomplished by reversing the sign on the negative emotion and attribute loadings to be positive. The tested portion of the model is displayed in Figure 7.1.

FIGURE 7.1 – Hypothesis 1, Equal Factor Loadings of Time One



**Significant parameter at the .05 level*

The significance test of this hypothesis is represented by a chi-square difference test between the base model with no constraints and the restricted model, which constrains the three relevant factor loadings in Time One equal to each other. The chi-square difference test was significant (X^2 change=63.579, df=2, p<.001), indicating that the loadings on immediate satisfaction were not equal. Only one of the individual loadings was significant, positive emotion, and accounts for the largest portion of the variance as indicated by the standardized parameters. The majority of the variance is accounted for in these three loadings as demonstrated by a small standardized disturbance estimate (D1,F1=.094). It is important to note that although the test was significant, the other fit indices do not show a change in fit (see Table 7.2).

TABLE 7.2 – Results of Chi-Square Difference Tests for Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis Tests	*df*	*x2*	*CFI*	*SRMR*	*RMSEA**	*? df*	*? S-B x2*	*p=*
General model for comparison	3058	11477.69	0.984	0.103	0.11 (.108,.112)	-	-	-
Hypothesis 1, time 1 equivalence	3060	11541.27	0.984	0.106	0.11 (.108,.112)	2	63.579	<.0001

**95% confidence interval around the RMSEA*

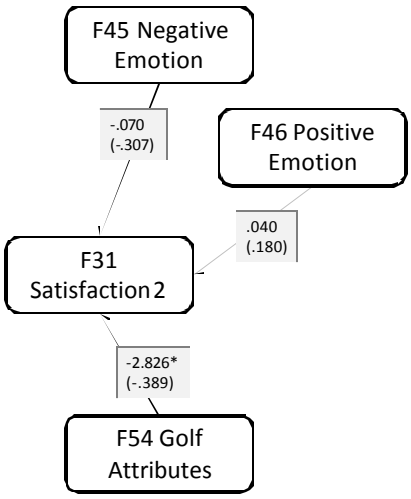
Hypothesis 2 - Equal Influence on Satisfaction at Time Two

Hypothesis Two pertains to the loadings on Factor 31, overall satisfaction, and was tested by constraining all of these loadings in Time Two equal to each other.

H2:Emotional appraisal at Time Two accounts for an equal proportion of the variance of immediate satisfaction as attribute appraisal at time two.

For the purpose of this test, the model was adjusted slightly to ensure testing of magnitude of influence regardless of a positive or negative relationship. This adjustment was accomplished by reversing the sign on the negative emotion and attribute loadings to be positive. The tested portion of the model is displayed in Figure 7.2.

FIGURE 7.2 – Hypothesis 2, Equal Factor Loadings at Time Two



The significance test of this hypothesis is represented by a chi-square difference test between the base model with no constraints, and the restricted model constraining the three relevant factor loadings in Time Two equal to each other. The chi-square difference test was significant (X^2 change=6.548, df=2, p=.038), showing that the loadings on immediate satisfaction were not equal. Only attribute appraisal loading on immediate satisfaction was significant and accounts for the largest portion of the variance as indicated by the standardized parameters. Unlike the results from the first hypothesis, most of the variance in overall satisfaction was unaccounted for as shown in the standardized disturbance estimate (D31,F31=.850). It is important to note that although the test was significant, the other fit indices do not show a change in fit (See table 7.3).

TABLE 7.3 – Results of Chi-Square Difference Tests for Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis Tests	*df*	*x2*	*CFI*	*SRMR*	*RMSEA**	*? df*	*? S-B χ 2*	*p=*
General model for comparison	3058	11477.69	0.984	0.103	0.11 (.108,.112)	-	-	-
Hypothesis 2, time 2 equivalence	3060	11484.24	0.984	0.103	0.11 (.108,.112)	2	6.548	0.0378

**95% confidence interval around the RMSEA*

Objective 2 – Equal Influence Over Time

The second objective of this dissertation was to determine if the effects of emotional appraisal and attribute appraisal are consistent over time. This constituency was tested using two separate tests, one of emotion and one of attribute appraisal.

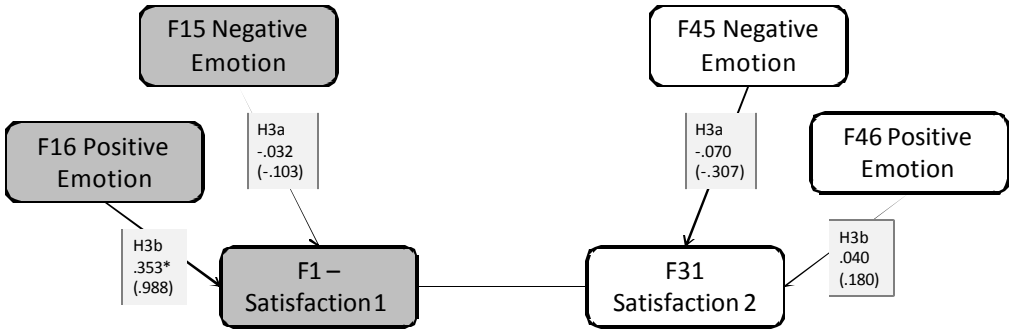
Hypothesis 3 – Equal Influence of Emotion on Satisfaction Over Time

Hypothesis Three pertains to the loadings of emotion on satisfaction in both time frames, and was tested by constraining the emotion loadings on each time period equal to each other.

H3: The proportion of variance accounted for by emotional appraisal at Time One and Time Two is unaffected by time.

For the purpose of this test, this hypothesis was tested in two separate parts. While building the measure model, it was found that the best fit included independent positive and negative emotion factors; therefore, each of these was tested individually. Hypothesis 3a tested the influence of negative emotion on satisfaction changes over time and Hypothesis 3b examined the influence of positive emotion on satisfaction changes over time. The tested portion of the model is displayed in Figure 7.3.

FIGURE 7.3 – Hypotheses 3a, 3b, Equal Emotion Factor Loadings



The significance test of this hypothesis is represented by a chi-square difference test between the base model with no constraints, and the restricted model constraining the three relevant factor loadings in each time equal to each other. For Hypothesis 3a, negative emotion, the chi-square difference test was not significant (X^2 change=0.463, df=1, p=.496) showing that the loadings on satisfaction are equal. Neither of the individual loadings were significant and accounted for a low portion of the variance at both times, as shown in the standardized parameter estimates (Time One; F15,F1=.103; Time Two; F45,F31=.307).

For Hypothesis 3b, positive emotion, the chi-square difference test was significant (X^2 change=7.850, df=1, p=.005), showing that the loadings on satisfaction not are equal. Only one of the individual loadings was significant. Positive emotion was significant at Time One and not at Time Two and accounted for different portions of variance at each time as shown in the standardized parameter estimates (Time One; F16,F1=.988; Time

Two; F46,F31=.180). It is important to note that although the test was significant, the other fit indices do not show in change a fit (See table 7.4).

TABLE 7.4 – Results of Chi-Square Difference Tests for Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis Tests	*df*	*x2*	*CFI*	*SRMR*	*RMSEA**	*? df*	*? S-B x2*	*p=*
General model for comparison	3058	11477.69	0.984	0.103	0.11 (.108,.112)	-	-	-
Hypothesis 3a, negative emotion equivalence	3059	11478.15	0.984	0.103	0.11 (.108,.112)	1	0.463	0.4962
Hypothesis 3b, poitive emotion equivalence	3059	11485.54	0.984	0.103	0.11 (.108,.112)	1	7.85	0.0051

**95% confidence interval around the RMSEA*

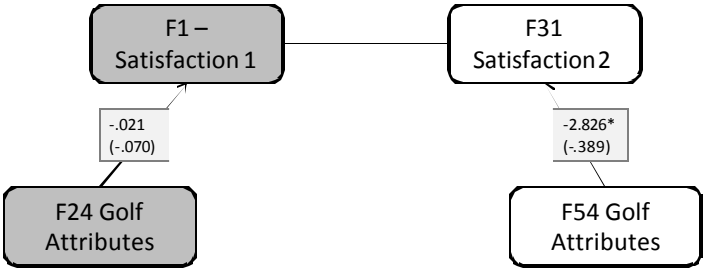
Hypothesis 4 – Equal Influence of Golf Course Attributes on Satisfaction Over Time

Hypothesis Four pertains to the loadings of golf course attribute appraisal on satisfaction in both time frames, and was tested by constraining the attribute loadings for each time period equal to each other.

H4:The proportion of variance accounted for by attribute appraisal at Time One and Time Two is unaffected by time.

The tested portion of the model is displayed in Figure 7.4.

FIGURE 7.4 – Hypothesis 4, Equal Attribute Factor Loadings



**Significant parameter at the .05 level*

The significance test of this hypothesis is represented by a chi-square difference test between the base model with no constraints and the restricted model constraining the three relevant factor loadings in each time equal to each other. For Hypothesis Four the chi-square difference test was not significant (X^2 change=3.379, df=1, p=.066), indicating that the loadings on satisfaction were equivalent. This test was very near the critical value for the chi-square test with a probability of 5%. This nearly significant estimate was reflected in the significance of the individual loading at time two, but not at Time One, and displayed different portions of the variance at each time as shown in the standardized parameter estimates (Time One; F24,F1=.070; Time Two; F45,F31=.389).

TABLE 7.5 – Results of Chi-Square Difference Tests for Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis Tests	*df*	*x2*	*CFI*	*SRMR*	*RMSEA**		*? df*	*? S-B x 2*	*p=*
General model for comparison	3058	11477.69	0.984	0.103	0.11	(.108,.112)	-	-	-
Hypothesis 4, attribute equivalence	3059	11481.07	0.984	0.103	0.11	(.108,.112)	1	3.379	0.066

**95% confidence interval around the RMSEA*

Objective 3 – Influence of Time One on Time Two

The third and final objective of this dissertation was to determine if immediate satisfaction influence reflective satisfaction and if this relationship was mediated by other Time Two variables. The first steps was to determine if there is a direct relationship between the measures of satisfaction, and next to determine if there were mediating effects through other variables.

Hypothesis 5 – Effects of Time One on Time Two estimates

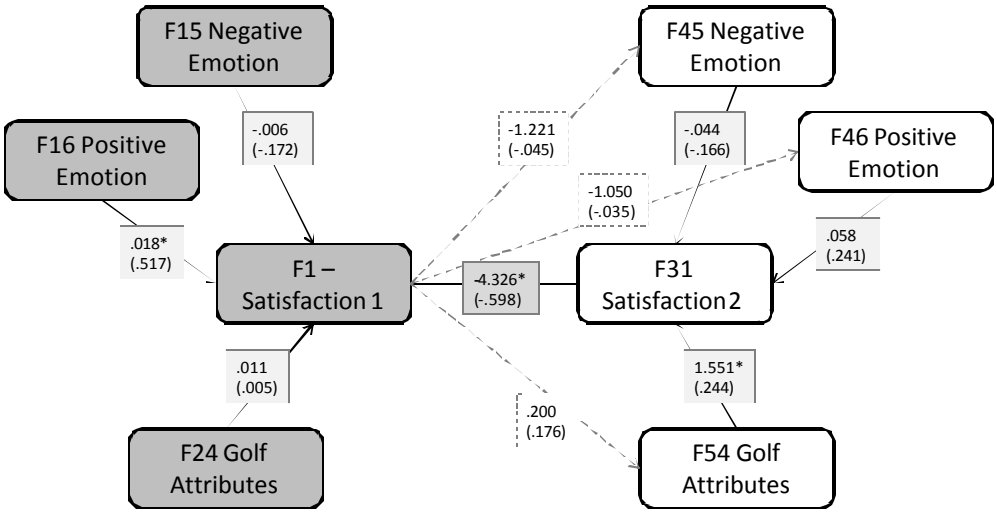
Hypothesis 5 pertains to the loading of immediate satisfaction on reflective satisfaction.

H5: Emotional appraisal at Time Two and attribute appraisal at Time Two are unaffected by immediate satisfaction.

The first step to test this hypothesis was to develop a model that expanded the base model used in the previous hypothesis tests. The additional factor loadings between immediate satisfaction and the Time Two factors of positive emotion, attribute appraisal and negative emotion were added to the model. These additional paths altered the estimates between the variables as previously tested as the final model includes relationships between Time One and Time Two factors through direct variance opposed to covariance. These additional paths (represented with dashed lines) and altered estimates are represented in Figure 7.5. This hypothesis was then tested in three parts. Hypothesis 5a tested the relationship between immediate satisfaction and negative emotion at time two. This relationship is non-significant (F45,F1=-1.221, t=-.721, p=.472). Hypothesis 5b

tested the relationship between immediate satisfaction and positive emotion at time two. This relationship is non-significant (F46,F1=-1.050, t=-.493, p=.622). Hypothesis 5c tested the relationship between immediate satisfaction and attribute appraisal. This relationship is non-significant (F54,F1=.200, t=.447, p=.634).

FIGURE 7.5 - Hypothesis 5, Effect of Immediate Satisfaction on Time Two Factors



**Significant parameter at the .05 level*
(Standardized parameters in parentheses)

The second manner in which to examine this relationship is with a chi-square difference test similar to those tests above. The model that was used to determine the loadings above serves as the base model for comparison.

Hypothesis 6 – Mediating Effects between Satisfaction Measures

Hypothesis Six pertains to tests of mediating effects through each of the Time Two factors.

H6: The relationship between immediate satisfaction and reflective satisfaction is not mediated by emotional appraisal at Time Two or attribute appraisal at time two.

The first step for this hypothesis was to determine the total and indirect effects of immediate satisfaction on reflective satisfaction. An examination of the total versus indirect effects indicates a standardized total effect between immediate satisfaction and reflective satisfaction of -.557. The standardized direct effect is -.598, indicating indirect effects of an additional -.041. This finding supports the need to examine each of the above mentioned factors further. The examination of the direct effected was tested by constraining the loading between immediate satisfaction and reflective satisfaction to zero, which is similar to removing the loading from the model. The results of the chi-square difference test showed a significant relationship between the satisfaction measures (X^2 change=24.861, df=1, p<.001), full results and fit tests are displayed in Table 7.6. The standardized parameter estimate shows a large portion of the variance of reflective satisfaction is accounted for in the relationship with immediate satisfaction (F31,F1=.598).

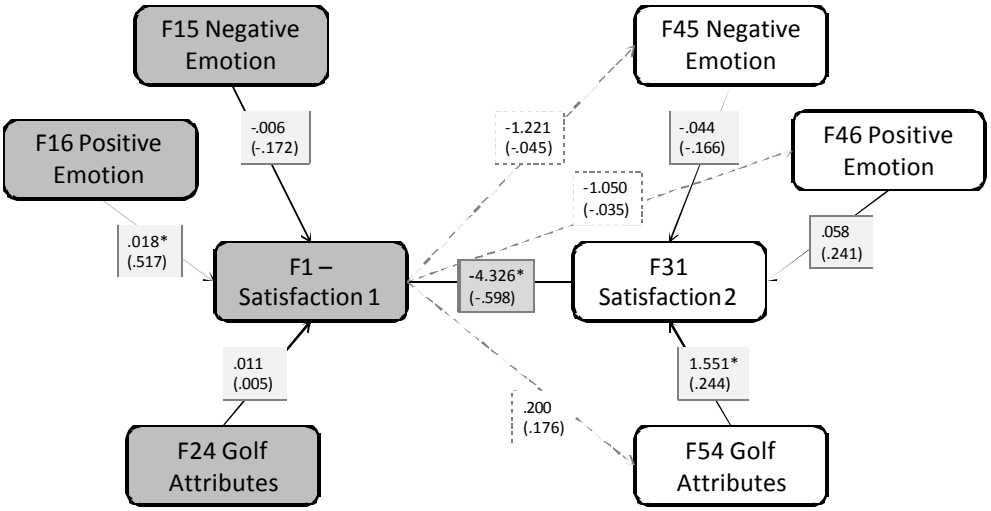
TABLE 7.6 – Examination of Direct Effect of Immediate Satisfaction on Reflective Satisfaction

Hypothesis Tests	*df*	*x2*	*CFI*	*SRMR*	*RMSEA**		*? df*	*? S-B x2*	*p=*
General model for hypothesis 6 comparison	3057	11481.1	0.985	0.104	0.11	(.108,.112)	-	-	-
Hypothesis 6 preparation, relationship of satisfaction measures	3058	11505.96	0.985	0.104	0.11	(.108,.112)	1	24.861	<.0001

**95% confidence interval around the RMSEA*

The second step was to examine the indirect effect as mediated through each of the three Time Two factors and thus was examined in three tests; negative emotion (Hypothesis 6a), positive emotion (Hypothesis 6b), and attribute appraisal (Hypothesis 6c). To examine these effects, the tests outlined by Sobel (1986) for computing Z scores for each factor were computed for significance tests. The results of the tests for each variable are outlined in Table 7.7. Hypothesis 6a for the mediating effect of negative emotion resulted in a non-significant z-score (z=.655, p=.256) and included a reduction of the effect of 1.26%. Hypothesis 6b for the mediating effect of positive emotion resulted in a non-significant z-score (z=.477, p=.317) and included an increase of the effect of 1.39%. Hypothesis 6c for the mediating effect of attribute appraisal resulted in a non-significant z-score (z=.317, p=.376) and included a reduction of the effect of 7.72%.

FIGURE 7.6 - Hypothesis 6, Mediating Effects of Time Two Factors



**Significant parameter at the .05 level*
(Standardized parameters in parentheses)

This hypothesis was examined in two ways. First, the direct factor loading between the two factors was examined for significance (see Figure 7.5). A full model was developed that included the proposed relationships between the variables and is shown in Figure 7.6. The loading between immediate satisfaction and reflective satisfaction was significant at the .05 level (t=3.345).

TABLE 7.7 – Results from Sobel Test of Mediating Effects

	Total Effect	*Indirect Effect*	*z-score for Significance*	*probability of z-score*	*Percent of mediation*
Hypothesis 6a, mediate through negative emotion	-4.272	0.054	0.655	0.256	-1.26
Hypothesis 6b, mediate through positive emotion	-4.386	0.061	0.476	0.317	1.39
Hypothesis 6c, mediate through attribute appraisal	-4.016	0.31	0.317	0.376	-7.72

TABLE 7.8 - Summary of Chi-Square Difference Tests Hypotheses 1-4 and 6

Hypothesis Tests	*df*	*x2*	*CFI*	*SRMR*	*RMSEA**		*? df*	*? S-B x2*	*p=*
General model for comparison	3058	11477.69	0.984	0.103	0.11	(.108,.112)	-	-	-
Hypothesis 1, time 1 equivalence	3060	11541.27	0.984	0.106	0.11	(.108,.112)	2	63.579	<.0001
Hypothesis 2, time 2 equivalence	3060	11484.24	0.984	0.103	0.11	(.108,.112)	2	6.548	0.0378
Hypothesis 3a, negative emotion equivalence	3059	11478.15	0.984	0.103	0.11	(.108,.112)	1	0.463	0.4962
Hypothesis 3b, poitive emotion equivalence	3059	11485.54	0.984	0.103	0.11	(.108,.112)	1	7.85	0.0051
Hypothesis 4, attribute equivalence	3059	11481.07	0.984	0.103	0.11	(.108,.112)	1	3.379	0.066
General model for hypothesis 6 comparison	3057	11481.1	0.985	0.104	0.11	(.108,.112)	-	-	-
Hypothesis 6 preparation, relationship of satisfaction measures	3058	11505.96	0.985	0.104	0.11	(.108,.112)	1	24.861	<.0001

**95% confidence interval around the RMSEA*

CHAPTER 8

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter contains four sections that discuss the findings and implications of the study. The first section will review results from the measurement model and the hypothesis tests. The second section will discuss these findings in terms of theoretical implications. The next section will discuss the practical and applied implications, and the final section will consider directions for future research.

Summary of the Findings

This section will begin with a discussion of the measurement model results. Although not part of the hypothesis of the dissertation, there are some considerations and implications that should be addressed. The next sections will address the results of the hypothesis tests.

Measurement Model Results

As reported in Chapter 6, an important step in testing structural equation modeling is the development of a measurement model (Hatcher, 1994). Through this process, several items were dropped from the final model. These items were dropped because of low factor loadings on corresponding factors, moderate to high cross-loadings on other factors, or low levels of relationship to any of the proposed factors. Worth mentioning are those factors that were dropped from the measurement model. The negative emotion items of "anger" and "irritation" was found to have a high relationship with the discrete emotion of "discontent". Therefore, the discrete emotions of "anger"

and "discontent" were merged and the label of discontent was used to describe this emotion because the connotations associated with discontent have lower intensity than connotations associated with anger. The positive emotion items associated with the discrete emotion of "surprise" all demonstrate low factor loadings. The discrete emotion of "surprise" was dropped because of low association with the corresponding factors and a low association with the outcomes of satisfaction through the higher order factor of positive emotion. The factors representing the higher order factor of course attribute appraisal were best represented with three factors as opposed to the proposed four-factor structure. Many of the items from the proposed people factor were found to load higher on the course factor or the extras factor and therefore were dropped.

Perhaps the most significant deviation from the proposed structure comes from the separation of the emotion factor into positive and negative emotion. As opposed to these emotions all lying on a single semantic differential scale, these represent two discrete higher order factors with high levels of discriminant validity. This finding follows the marketing literature on positive and negative affect which has found these constructs as divergent with unique interactions with other variables such as satisfaction (Mano & Oliver, 1993; Oliver, 1993). A two dimensional model of the affective states of pleasure and arousal and their effect on satisfaction has been tested (Ladhari, 2007), but no attention was paid to negative emotion or affect. The psychology literature has regarded positive and negative emotions as separate constructs for some time (Fredrickson, 2001) and even has a branch of emotion research referred to as positive psychology (Fredrickson, 2004).

Despite the deep separation of positive and negative emotions within the psychology literature, marketing literature concerning consumption emotions has been limited. Laros and Steenkamp (2005) provide one exception in a hierarchical view of consumption emotions that divides the discrete emotions proposed by Richins, Power and others into positive and negative dimensions. Their resulting model is similar to the measurement model used in this dissertation.

Results from the First Objective

The first objective was to determine the extent that emotional appraisal and attribute appraisal predict satisfaction at Time One and time two. To examine this objective, two hypotheses were developed:

H1: Emotional appraisal at Time One accounts for an equal proportion of the variance of immediate satisfaction as attribute appraisal at Time One.

H2: Emotional appraisal at Time Two accounts for an equal proportion of the variance of immediate satisfaction as attribute appraisal at time two.

Both of these are tested using a chi-square difference test, which compares a model with the appropriate factor loadings constrained to be equal with the base model. The results of these tests can be seen in Table 8.1.

TABLE 8.1 – Results for Objective One

Hypothesis Tests	*df*	*x2*	*CFI*	*SRMR*	*RMSEA**	*? df*	*? S-B x 2*	*p=*
General model for comparison	3058	11477.69	0.984	0.103	0.11 (.108,.112)	-	-	-
Hypothesis 1, time 1 equivalence	3060	11541.27	0.984	0.106	0.11 (.108,.112)	2	63.579	<.0001
Hypothesis 2, time 2 equivalence	3060	11484.24	0.984	0.103	0.11 (.108,.112)	2	6.548	0.0378

**95% confidence interval around the RMSEA*

The null hypothesis for this test states that the two models are similar. The chi-square difference test with the Satorra-Benter adjustment for non-normal kurtosis indicate that both hypotheses were significant, meaning that the factor loadings are not equal. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. Examination of the standardized factor loadings gives an indication of proportion of variance explained. At Time One, positive emotion accounts for a much larger proportion of variance of immediate satisfaction (.988) than negative emotion (.103) or attribute appraisal (.070).

For Hypothesis Two, the chi-square difference test also rejects the null hypothesis, supporting that the model with constraints is significantly different than the base model at time two. With a probability of 0.038, it lies just inside the significance level of 0.05, which is reflected in the similarity of the proportion of variance explained by attribute appraisal (.389) and negative emotion (.307). Unlike the factor loadings in Time One, positive emotion at Time Two has the lowest proportion of variance explained (.180).

Results from the Second Objective

The second objective was to determine if the effects of emotional appraisal and attribute appraisal change from Time One to time two. This objective was originally proposed to be tested through two hypotheses; however when the model supported the constructs of positive and negative acting independently on satisfaction, it was necessary to split hypothesis 3 into two parts. The following three hypotheses were then tested:

H3a: the proportion of variance accounted for by negative emotion at Time One and Time Two is unaffected by time.

H3b: the proportion of variance accounted for by positive emotion at Time One and Time Two is unaffected by time.

H4: the proportion of variance accounted for by attribute appraisal at Time One and Time Two is unaffected by time.

These hypotheses are tested with a chi-square difference test. The results of these tests are found in Table 8.2.

TABLE 8.2 - Results for Objective Two

Hypothesis Tests	*df*	*x2*	*CFI*	*SRMR*	*RMSEA**	*? df*	*? S-B x 2*	*p=*
General model for comparison	3058	11477.69	0.984	0.103	0.11 (.108,.112)	-	-	-
Hypothesis 3a, negative emotion equivalence	3059	11478.15	0.984	0.103	0.11 (.108,.112)	1	0.463	0.4962
Hypothesis 3b, poitive emotion equivalence	3059	11485.54	0.984	0.103	0.11 (.108,.112)	1	7.85	0.0051
Hypothesis 4, attribute equivalence	3059	11481.07	0.984	0.103	0.11 (.108,.112)	1	3.379	0.066

**95% confidence interval around the RMSEA*

The test of hypothesis 3a fails to reject the null hypothesis, thus signifying that the factor loadings of negative emotion are similar at Time One and Time Two. The relationship between negative and satisfaction were non-significant at both times (Time One; F15,F1=-.032, t=-.988, p=.325/ Time Two; F45,F31=-.070, t=-1.820, p=.071) and account for low levels of variance in satisfaction (Time One=.103, Time Two=307). This relationship signifies that negative emotion is not related to changes in satisfaction as measured in this dissertation.

The test of hypothesis 3b rejects the null hypothesis signifying that the factor loadings of positive emotion are not similar at Time One and time two. The relationship between positive emotion and satisfaction is significant at Time One (F16,F1=.358, t=5.053, p<.001) but not at Time Two (F45,F31=.040, t=.883, p=.378). Positive emotion at Time One accounts for a large portion of the variance of immediate satisfaction (.988) but positive emotion at Time Two does not account for much of the variance of reflective

satisfaction (.180). This finding supports the premise that emotion is a short-term, targeted response to a stimulus (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999; Schoefer & Diamantopoulos, 2008).

The test of Hypothesis Four fails to reject the null hypothesis, signifying that the factor loadings of attribute appraisal on satisfaction are the same at Time One and time two. The probability of this test places the results just outside of the 5% significance level at 6.6%. This finding is reflected in the variation in the relationships between attribute appraisal and satisfaction. The relationship between attribute appraisal at Time One and immediate satisfaction is non-significant (F24,F1=-.021, t=-.644, p=.520) and accounts for a small proportion of the variance (.070). However, the relationship between attribute appraisal at Time Two and reflective satisfaction is significant (F54,F31=-2.826, t=2.412, p=.017) and accounts for a larger portion of the variance (.389). Although the factor loadings at Time One and Time Two indicate dissimilar relationships, the chi-square difference tests indicate the differences are non-significant in relation to the full model. It is shown that the relationship is stronger at time two, albeit at a non-significant level.

Results from the Third Objective

The third objective was to determine if immediate satisfaction predicts reflective satisfaction, or if the appraisals at Time Two predict reflective satisfaction. This objective was tested through two hypotheses:

H5: emotional appraisal at Time Two and attribute appraisal at Time Two are unaffected by immediate satisfaction.

H6: the relationship between immediate satisfaction and reflective satisfaction in not mediated by emotional appraisal at Time Two or attribute appraisal at time two.

The testing of Hypothesis 5 was conducted in three parts. The results show that there is no significant relationship between immediate satisfaction and the Time Two factors of positive emotion, negative emotion and attribute appraisal (hypothesis 5a; F45,F1=-1.221, t=-.721, p=.472/ hypothesis 5b F46,F1=-1.050, t=-.493, p=.622/ hypothesis 5c F54,F1=.200, t=.447, p=.634), thus failing to reject the null hypothesis.

In order to assess the relationship between immediate satisfaction and reflective satisfaction, first the direct effect was examined. Table 8.3 lists the results from the chi-square difference tests that show a significant change in model fit when the direct effect between the satisfaction measures is removed (or constrained to zero). This result indicates this is a significant relationship to the model. Examination of the total effects indicates that there are indirect effects between the satisfaction measures, therefore individual tests of mediation were conducted on each of the Time Two factors. As can be seen in Table 8.4, none of these tests were significant, which indicates a lack of mediation through the Time Two factors.

TABLE 8.3 – Examination of Direct Effect of Immediate Satisfaction on Reflective Satisfaction

Hypothesis Tests	*df*	*x2*	*CFI*	*SRMR*	*RMSEA**	*? df*	*? S-B x 2*	*p=*
General model for hypothesis 6 comparison	3057	11481.1	0.985	0.104	0.11 (.108,.112)	-	-	-
Hypothesis 6 preparation, relationship of satisfaction measures	3058	11505.96	0.985	0.104	0.11 (.108,.112)	1	24.861	<.0001

**95% confidence interval around the RMSEA*

TABLE 8.4 – Results from Sobel Test of Mediating Effects

	Total Effect	*Indirect Effect*	*z-score for Significance*	*probability of z-score*	*Percent of mediation*
Hypothesis 6a, mediate through negative emotion	-4.272	0.054	0.655	0.256	-1.26
Hypothesis 6b, mediate through positive emotion	-4.386	0.061	0.476	0.317	1.39
Hypothesis 6c, mediate through attribute appraisal	-4.016	0.31	0.317	0.376	-7.72

Theoretical Implications

The purpose of this study was to explore a model of golf travelers' satisfaction through the integration of methods examining satisfaction through the variables of attribute performance appraisal and consumption emotions. Following the research that suggests the correlates between attribute performance and satisfaction are inconsistent over time, this study also addressed the influence of time on the relationships among

attribute performance appraisal, emotion and satisfaction. This study proposed and tested a model of golf traveler satisfaction that included influences of attribute performance, positive emotion, and negative emotion. Additionally, this model was tested at two time periods to identify changes in relationships between the study variables. This study contributes to the tourism literature by highlighting the importance of the affective component of satisfaction in a sport tourism setting. This study also contributes to marketing literature through the further examination of consumption emotions and their relationships to satisfaction when paired with attribute performance appraisals.

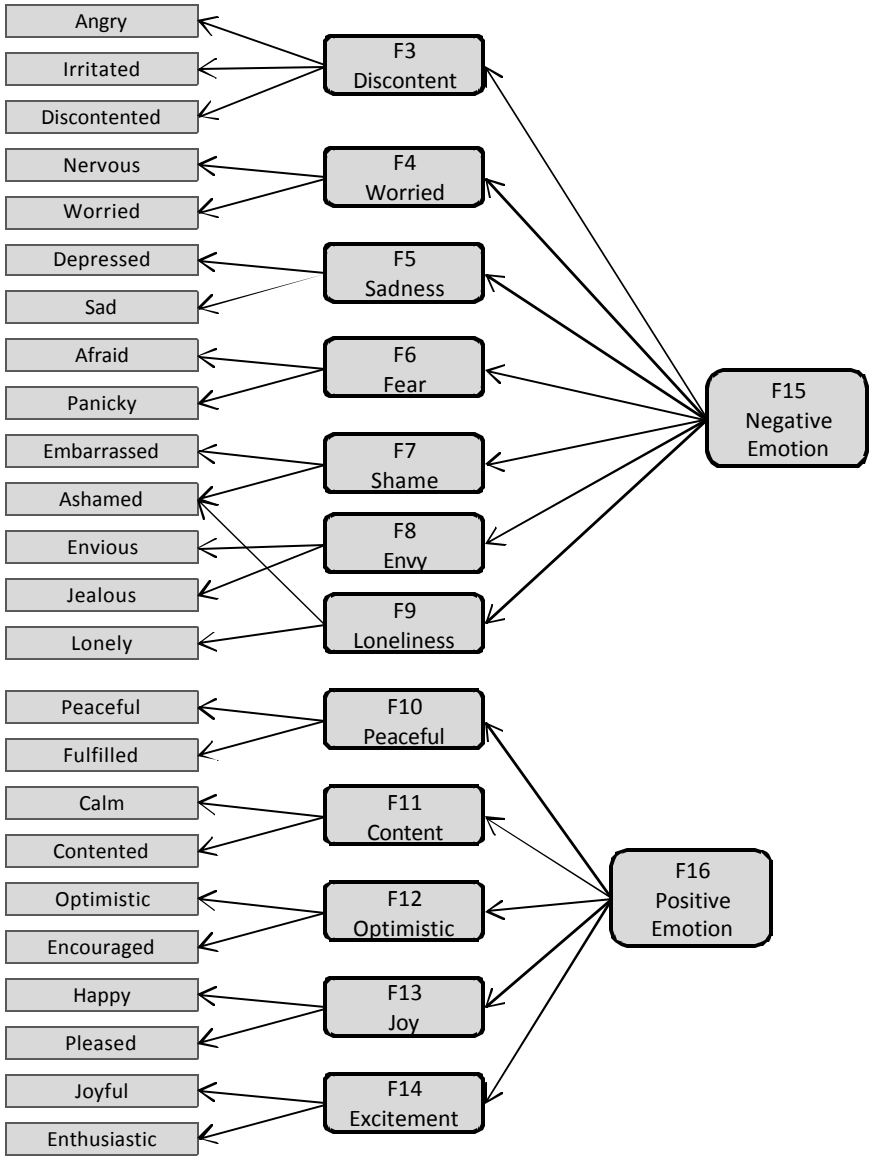
Previous research has primarily focused on either attribute performance or consumption emotions (Bagozzi, et al., 1999). Researchers have begun to integrate cognitive and affective components to further understand satisfaction (Bigne, et al., 2008; Dube, Cervellon, & Jingyuan, 2003). Bigne, Mattila and Andrue (2008) used a cognitive performance appraisal variable of disconfirmation in a model that included the affective components of Russell's circumplex model of pleasure and arousal. This study provides an alternate model that follows the consumption emotions as tested by Richins' (1997) consumption emotions scale. This model was modified to better fit the relationships that were present in the data. These modifications support the discrete consumption emotion structure tested by Laros and Steenkamp (2005).

The first finding of significance in this study came from the measurement model that examined the relationships between the measured items and first order factors. The first order factors of emotion represent discrete emotion. The finding of separate, discrete emotions supports the literature of Richins (1997) , Phillips and Baumgartner (2002) and

Laros and Steenkamp (2005). Much of the support for discrete emotions argues for independent relationships with outcome variables, such as satisfaction (Richins, 1997). However, the results of the measurement model testing supports positive and negative emotions that are not on semantic differential scales as suggested by Russell (1980) or Watson et al., (1988). The results of this study support two dimensions of emotion that act separately on satisfaction.

Overall, the fit of the proposed model was good supporting the integration of consumption emotions with attribute performance appraisal. The bi-dimensional aspect of emotion was shown in the structural portion of the model as shown in Figure 8.1. However, negative emotion did not account for significant portions of the variance of satisfaction at either time. This finding suggests that negative emotion is not a significant factor in golf travelers satisfaction as measured in this study. This finding follows viewpoints of positive psychology (Fredrickson, 2001) that suggest a need to focus on positive aspects such as emotion.

FIGURE 8.1 – Two Dimensions of Emotion Developed in the Measurement Model



The results of hypothesis one suggest that the majority of variance accounted for at Time One comes from positive emotion. Regardless of the actual appraisal of attributes, the emotions elicited during the consumption experience are a stronger predictor of satisfaction. This result does not suggest that the performance of the attributes is separate from emotion; this matter warrants further research. It does suggest

that positive emotions are at the core of the feelings of satisfaction immediately following the consumption experience.

Hypothesis Two suggests that the relationships at Time Two are not equal, just as in Time One. However, examination of the standardized loadings shows attribute appraisal as displaying a more prominent role in influencing satisfaction. This supports the idea that emotions are short term and targeted feelings. When respondents reflected upon the consumption event of playing golf, reexamination of the emotions elicited did not account for a significant proportion of reflective satisfaction variation.

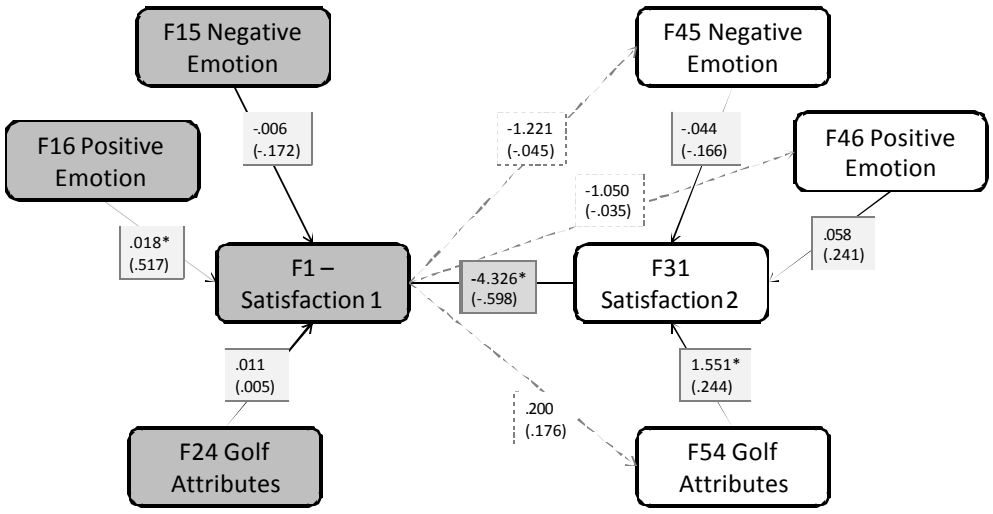
Further examination of this change over time can be seen in Hypothesis Three b, which suggests that positive emotion is not equal at times one and two. The standardized loadings indicate a much stronger relationship with satisfaction at Time One. This supports the research stating the correlates between attribute appraisal and satisfaction are not consistent over time. Hypothesis Four tested the relationships between attribute appraisal and satisfaction, and found although there was a change, it was not a significant difference for this sample of golf travelers.

The parameter of positive emotion was significant at Time One where as the parameter of attribute appraisal was significant at time two. This finding shows that the primary determinant of satisfaction at Time One is positive emotion. The primary determinant of satisfaction at Time Two is not a reappraisal of emotion at time two, rather a reappraisal of attribute performance.

In order to further investigate the relationships of the model, total and indirect effects were examined in Hypotheses Five and Six. When a relationship between

immediate satisfaction and reflective satisfaction was added to the model the paths changes slightly (see the parameter estimates in Figure 8.2). The most apparent change is the large portion of the variance that is accounted for in the direct relationship between immediate satisfaction and reflective satisfaction. Hypothesis Five found there were no significant relationships between immediate satisfaction and the Time Two variables of emotion or attribute appraisal. When respondents reflected on the consumption experience the levels of reappraisal at Time Two were unaffected by the feelings of satisfaction at Time One. This was further reflected in Hypothesis Six which found no significant indirect effects through these variables. This finding suggests that feelings of satisfaction are the primary determinant of feelings of satisfaction at time two.

FIGURE 8.2 – Relationship Between Immediate Satisfaction and Reflective Satisfaction



**Significant parameter at the .05 level*
(Standardized parameters in parentheses)

In summary, the results show that an individual's feelings of satisfaction immediately following a consumption experience are most influenced by positive

emotion. Feelings of satisfaction at a later time are primarily influenced by the feelings of satisfaction at Time One and are augmented to a small degree by a reappraisal of the attribute performance.

Practical Implications

Feelings of satisfaction are of primary concern for managers of any business, and perhaps even more so for the golf travel industry. Feelings of satisfaction have been shown to increase repeat business, which is necessary for long-term relationships with traveling customers. Satisfaction in tourism has also been shown to increase the intentions to recommend, which is vital for attracting new customers.

This study addresses aspects of satisfaction in two time periods that include different implications for golf tourism managers. Immediate satisfaction might increase repeat play during the same visit to the general destination. For example, the golf travelers to a golfing destination seek to play multiple rounds of golf during their multiple day stay in the region. Immediate feelings of satisfaction could result in immediate repeat play, such as a second round the same day, or another round on a subsequent day. Immediate satisfaction seems to lead to increased spending onsite, such as merchandise, food and beverage purchases. This study shows that positive emotion has the largest influence on feelings of satisfaction in the immediate context. Managers should then focus on components of the tourism experience that are most likely to elicit positive emotions.

Feelings of satisfaction in reflective context might lead to repeat business on a return trip, or to positive recommendations to other potential travelers to the area. This

satisfaction increases business in the long term. Managers seeking to increase these behaviors should focus on providing an adequate experience while on site to increase immediate satisfaction and should also focus on those memorable components that influence attribute reappraisals.

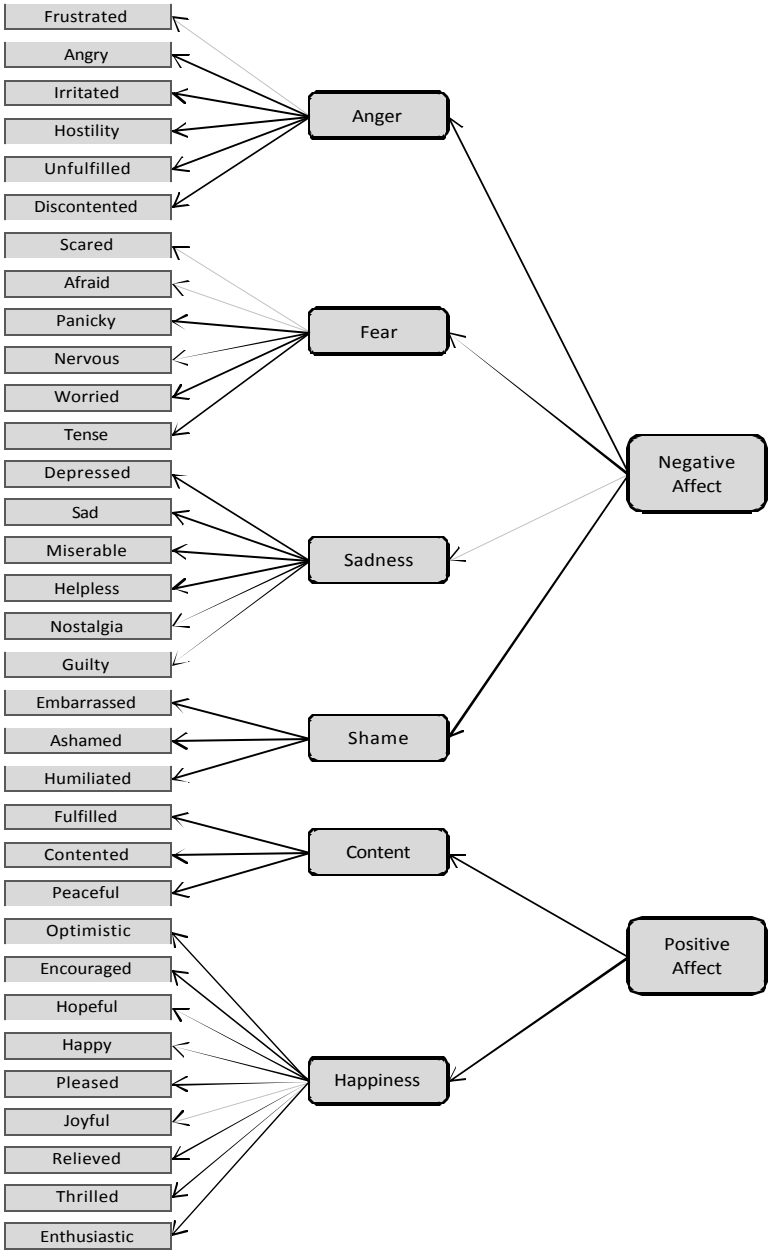
Interestingly, negative emotion was found to have a non-significant relationship with satisfaction. When faced with limited resources, managers should choose to focus on increasing the aspects that might elicit positive emotions during the consumption experience rather than focusing on eliminating sources of negative emotion. This also applies to the management of golf course attributes. Many owners and managers seek to spend large sums of money on the physical improvement of the golf course itself, i.e., condition of greens and fairways. These results suggest that other golf course factors that influence emotion, such as aesthetic views and pleasing settings should be considered in these expensive renovations and improvements.

Implications for Future Research

Following the results and implications of this study, future research that focuses on satisfaction should first further explore the relationships among emotion, affect, cognitive appraisals and satisfaction. The emotion scale started as a reproduction of Richens' CES, but the steps to build a measurement model proved that this scale was inadequate to represent the relationships in the data. The adjusted model more closely resembled the two-dimensional structure developed by Laros and Steenkamp (2005), which can be seen in Figure 8.3. When compared to the final tested structure of this study (Figure 8.2), the primary difference is a reduction in the number of discrete emotions.

Although this adjustment differs from Richins' (1997) research, it does follow the discussions in the literature concerning the number of discrete emotions (Bagozzi, et al., 1999; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005). Indeed, Bagozzi et al., (1999) suggest that the structure of emotion lacks understanding to the point that satisfaction could be considered another discrete positive emotion. The authors go on to suggest that all emotions are influenced by cognitive processes such as disconfirmation or attribute performance appraisal. Future research is necessary to develop simple but adequate models of emotion and affect that either include satisfaction or show the effect on satisfaction. It is likely that the exact emotional structure will vary dependent on the culture and context in which the data is collected. For the interest of studies similar to this one in sport tourism settings, it is necessary to examine the emotions from both active and passive sport activities in both tourism and non-tourism settings.

FIGURE 8.3 – Two Dimensions of Consumption Emotions Proposed Laros and Steenkamp



Adapted from Laros & Steenkamp, 2005

The attribute appraisal scale used in this study was taken from the work of Richard and Faircloth (Faircloth, et al., 1995; Richard & Faircloth, 1994), which was targeted to recreational golfers without differentiating between local and tourist. Further research is needed to identify what attributes are important for golf travelers.

This study was intended to focus on short-term, targeted emotions and the interaction with attribute performance appraisal to influence satisfaction. The review of emotion at Time Two revealed a low relationship to satisfaction. However, other affective measures might be used at time two in place of the emotion measures to better gauge the effect of affect on satisfaction. Further research is needed to identify the interaction between the variables at Time One, and the variables at time two to identify further indirect effects. For example, the measurement of emotion at Time Two is shown to have a non-significant relationship with reflective satisfaction. However, it is possible that the strong relationship between immediate and reflective satisfactions represents an indirect effect of positive emotion at Time One.

The results of this study indicate that negative emotion had a non-significant relationship with satisfaction. However, the satisfaction measure was considered a uni-dimensional construct. Some previous research has argued for a bi-dimensional structure of satisfaction similar to the bi-dimensional structure of emotion (see Yi, 1990 for review). Further studies could include dissatisfaction measures as well as satisfaction measures to explore relationships with positive and negative emotion.

APPENDICES

Appendix A – Recruitment Script

Recruitment Script – March - May, 2008
South Myrtle Beach Golf Behavior Research Project

(Opening Greeting)

You are invited to participate in a study conducted on behalf of (*name of course)* conducted by members of the Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management program at Clemson University. The purpose of this study is to look at how certain factors influence your overall feelings of satisfaction with your golf experience today.

This study has two phases. First, we ask that you take 10-15 minutes to fill out a survey here. The second phase involves a 5-8 minute online survey. For that phase, we ask that you provide us with an email address. We will then email you a link to an online survey in approximately 3 weeks. As a thank you for filling out the survey, we will be offering free drinks in the clubhouse today after you complete this written survey (and yes, this does include a free draft beer). Participation in this study requires no other involvement than these surveys and there are no risks involved. Participation is completely voluntary and you may choose end your participation at any time.

We assure you that the email that you provide will only be used for the follow up survey link. We will not use your email address for any other purpose and at no time will any individuals see or have access to your information other than the research team working on this project at Clemson University. The email address will not be linked to your answers in any way. Your honesty is very important to the success of this project. One you complete the online survey, your email address will be deleted and any references to it will be destroyed.

Thank you for your time and participation.

Appendix B – Email Request Form

South Myrtle Beach
Golf Behavior Research Project

We thank you for your participation with this first phase of this study. To complete this study, we need an email address for you so we can contact you and provide you with an easy link to access the second phase survey.

- By supplying my email below, I grant permission for the second phase survey link to be emailed to my account.
- I understand this is completely voluntary and that the email address supplied here will *not* be used for any other purpose than to contact me for the second survey link.
- I also understand that this email address will be deleted once the second phase survey has been completed.

_____

Please write your email address above

Thank you for your time. This information will be used to improve your golf experiences in the future.

Questions concerning this project can be directed to Dr. Sheila Backman (864)656-5236 or back@clemson.edu or Brian Krohn (864)656-6124 or krohn@clemson.edu. This project is approved by the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (864)656-6460.

South Myrtle Beach
Golfer Satisfaction Study

Spring 2008

Department of Parks, Recreation & Tourism Management
Clemson University
Clemson, South Carolina 29634

Directions **Page 1 of 7**

The purpose of this study is to look at how certain factors influence your overall feelings of satisfaction with your golf experience today. Specific factors include quality of certain aspects of the golf course, emotions you experienced today, ways in which you booked your tee time, and other individual factors such as level of experience both with golf and travel. Please answer the following questions.

Section A: Your Golf Experience

1. Regardless of which courses you play, how many times per year do you play golf? _____

2. Regardless of where you travel to play golf, how many golf vacations have you taken in the past 5 years? _____

3. Of the golf vacations you have taken in the past 5 years how many different destinations have you visited? _____

4. What is your USGA Handicap Index (if Unknown, what is your average score for 18 holes) ("x" one)
   ☐ Zero or + (72 or less) ☐ 11-20 (85-96) ☐ 1-5 (73-78)
   ☐ 21-30 (97-110) ☐ 6-10 (79-84) ☐ More than 30 (111+)

5. How would you rate yourself in terms of your ability as a golfer? ("x" one)
   ☐ Beginner ☐ Intermediate ☐ Advanced ☐ Expert

6. How many years have you been playing golf?_____

7. Which of these types of course do you most frequently play? ("x" one)
   ☐ Public ☐ Semi-Private ☐ Private ☐ Resort

8. Which of these types of courses do you most frequently play? ("x" one)
   ☐ Regulation 18 hole ☐ Regulation 9 hole
   ☐ Executive ☐ Par 3

9. How many days do you plan to stay in Myrtle Beach?_____

10. How many rounds of golf will you play while here in Myrtle Beach?_____

11. What is the main purpose for traveling to Myrtle Beach? ("x" one)
    ☐ Family Vacation ☐ Golf Vacation ☐ Single round of golf
    ☐ Business ☐ Other attraction ☐ Other:_____

Section B: Travel and Activity Questions Page 2 of 7

12. For what reasons did you select this course today? ("x" one)
☐ Referral-friend/family ☐ Promotional Material/Advertising
☐ Referral-hotel if so, what was the source of the advertising?
☐ Played course before
☐ Part of package _____

13. What method did you use to book today's round of golf? ("x" one)
☐ Direct pre-book (call from home) ☐ Drove in and purchased package
☐ Pre-booked-Hotel/Golf package ☐ Online tee time reservation
☐ Pre-booked-Golf only package ☐ Un booked-Drove in (or called today)

14. What mode of travel brought you to the area? ("x" one)
☐ Automobile ☐ RV/motor home ☐ Tour Bus ☐ Airline – Which airline?_____
☐ Other _____ What airport?_____

15. When traveling for vacation purposes, what is your *preferred* mode of travel? ("x" one)
☐ Automobile ☐ RV/motor home ☐ Tour Bus
☐ Airline – Which one?_____ ☐ Other_____

16. What was your approximate household income for last year?
☐ Under $30,000 ☐ $30,000-49,999 ☐ $50,000-99,999
☐ $100,000-124,999 ☐ $125,000-149,000 ☐ $150,000 or more

17. What is your ethnic background?
☐ Black or African-American ☐ Hispanic ☐ White
☐ Native American/American Indian ☐ Asian ☐ Other:_____

Section C: Today's Golf Experience

18. Please rate your overall impression of today's golfing experience.	Worse than I expected 1	2	3	4	5	6	Better than I expected 7
19. Please rate the overall experience of today's round of golf.	Terrible 1	2	3	4	5	6	Delightful 7
20. Please rate how you played today compared to your normal level of play.	Very Bad 1	2	3	4	5	6	Very Good 7

Section D: Emotions Experienced during Today's Round of Golf Page 3 of 7

In this section you will be indicating the level at which you experienced certain emotions. The list includes adjectives that are commonly used to describe emotions. Please indicate on the scale how strongly you felt each emotion during your round of golf today. If you didn't feel the emotion during the round, or the emotion is not applicable, then circle "1". If you felt the emotion even slightly, then rate "2" or higher. If you felt the emotion very strongly during the round today, then circle "7".

21. Today's round of golf made me feel:

(*please circle one number per emotion*)	Not at all						Strongly
Frustrated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Depressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Optimistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Embarrassed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Envious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Calm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Contented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Worried	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Encouraged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pleased	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Thrilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Lonely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section D: Emotions Experienced during Today's Round of Golf Page 4 of 7

21. Today's round of golf made me feel: (continued from page 5)

(*please circle one number per emotion*)	Not at all						Strongly
Amazed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Peaceful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fulfilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unfulfilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tense	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Miserable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Panicky	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hopeful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Joyful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Astonished	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Irritated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Discontented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Humiliated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jealous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Homesick	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section E: Your Satisfaction with Today's Round of Golf

22. Please rate your satisfaction with today's round of golf.

Very Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Satisfied

23. Please rate your pleasure experienced during today's round of golf.

Very Displeased 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Pleased

24. Please rate the level of passion you feel toward the game of golf.

Not at all Passionate 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Passionate

Section F: Golf Course Attributes and Setting **Page 5 of 7**

25. Please indicate the amount to which you agree with the statements regarding specific features of the golf course you played ***during today's round of golf***.

(*please circle one number per statement*)	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
The speed of play is to my liking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The price of play is reasonable for a course of this quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Getting convenient tee times is not a major problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The course is conveniently located.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The course is not too long in terms of yardage.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The course layout fits my style of play (e.g. width, hazards, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The condition of the greens is excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The condition of the fairways is excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The course difficulty is appropriate for my level of play.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The attitude of other golfers is friendly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The course is designed by a well known designer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The golf pro has helped me improve my game.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The course was recommended by someone I respect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The restaurant or food service is excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The course has several amenities, such as a pool, tennis courts, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy shopping at the pro shop.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The practice facilities are excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The maintenance staff was courteous and unobtrusive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section G: Your Golf Course Preferences Page 6 of 7

26. When ***choosing*** a golf course to play, how important are the following attributes in your decision?

(*please circle one number per statement*)	Not at all important						Very important
Type of course fee structure (public/private/resort)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Type of course category (regulation/executive/par3)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Condition of the course	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Availability of practice facilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Quality of food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Availability of alcoholic beverages	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Availability of on course beverage service	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Handicapping service	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
GPS yardage assistance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Communication cafés	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cart path policy (90^0 rule/cart path only)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ability to bring your own cooler	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Handicap accessibility	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Availability of online booking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A fair cancellation policy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section H: Some Questions about Yourself

27. Are you ☐ Male or ☐ Female? **28.** What is your age? _____

29. What is the zip code of your primary residence? _____

30. What is your marital status? ("x" one)

☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Separated
☐ Divorced ☐ Widowed ☐ Life Partner

31. How many children under the age of 18 live in your household? _____

Section I: Your Recommendations for this Course **Page 7 of 7**

32.	The likelihood that I would consider returning to play golf again at this golf course is:	Very Unlikely 1	2	3	4	5	6	Very Likely 7
33.	The likelihood that I would consider recommending this course to someone else is:	Very Unlikely 1	2	3	4	5	6	Very Likely 7

In the space below, please list any other activities you will do while here in Myrtle Beach.

In the space below, please list any factors that influenced your satisfaction or enjoyment of your round of golf today that you feel were not represented in this survey.

Thank you for your participation in this important study!

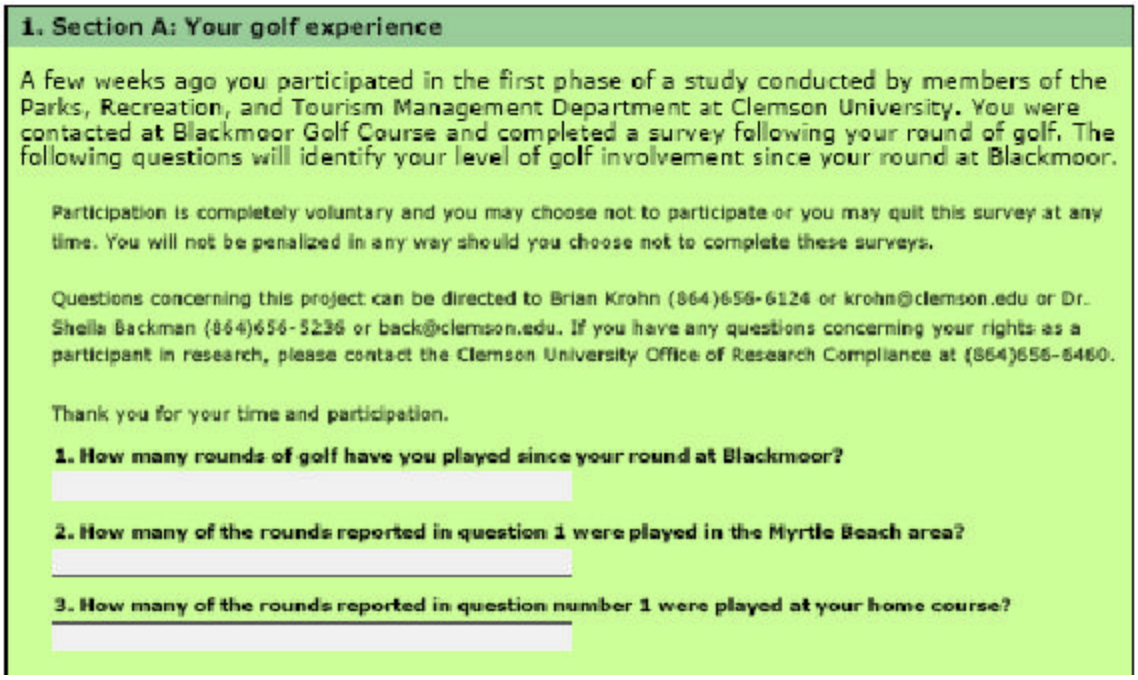
The second phase of the questionnaire will follow as an internet based survey that will follow in three-four weeks. Once you respond, we will delete your email address and destroy all records of your personal information. Thank you in advance for completing both phases of this study.

If you have any question pertaining to your rights as a participant or questions concerning this questionnaire, please contact the Office of Research Compliance at Clemson University at 864-656-6460.

Any questions pertaining to the availability and the use of the information collected, please contact:

Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management
263 Lehotsky Hall, Box 340735
Clemson University
Clemson, South Carolina 29634-9980

Appendix D – Online Questionnaire



1. Section A: Your golf experience

A few weeks ago you participated in the first phase of a study conducted by members of the Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management Department at Clemson University. You were contacted at Blackmoor Golf Course and completed a survey following your round of golf. The following questions will identify your level of golf involvement since your round at Blackmoor.

Participation is completely voluntary and you may choose not to participate or you may quit this survey at any time. You will not be penalized in any way should you choose not to complete these surveys.

Questions concerning this project can be directed to Brian Krohn (864)656-6124 or krohn@clemson.edu or Dr. Sheila Backman (864)656-5236 or back@clemson.edu. If you have any questions concerning your rights as a participant in research, please contact the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance at (864)656-6460.

Thank you for your time and participation.

1. How many rounds of golf have you played since your round at Blackmoor?

2. How many of the rounds reported in question 1 were played in the Myrtle Beach area?

3. How many of the rounds reported in question number 1 were played at your home course?

2. Section B: Your Golf Experience at Blackmoor

As we have stated before, these questions pertain to the round of golf you played at Blackmoor Golf Course. When completing this portion of the survey, we ask that you consider the round of golf that you completed on that day. These questions are very similar to questions you were asked before, but this similarity is an important aspect of this study. When responding to these questions, please think back to how you played and the satisfaction that you experienced as a direct result of your round of golf.

4. Think back to your round of golf at Blackmoor...
Please rate your overall impression with the golf experience at Blackmoor.

	Worse than I expected						Better than I expected
.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

5. Please rate your overall experience during the round of golf at Blackmoor.

	Terrible						Delightful
.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

6. Please rate how you played during your round at Blackmoor compared to your normal level of play.

	Very Bad						Very Good
.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

3. Section C: Golf Course and Setting

As we have stated before, these questions pertain to the round of golf you played at Blackmoor Golf Course. When completing this portion of the survey, we ask that you consider the round of golf that you completed on that day. These questions are very similar to questions you were asked before, but this similarity is an important aspect of this study. When responding to these questions, please think back to your perceptions of course quality that you experienced as a direct result of your round of golf.

7. Think back to your round of golf at Blackmoor...

Please indicate the amount to which you agree with the statements regarding specific features of Blackmoor.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
The speed of play is to my liking.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The price of play is reasonable for a course of this quality.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Getting convenient tee times is not a major problem.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The course is conveniently located.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The course is not too long in terms of yardage.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The course layout fits my style of play (e.g. width, hazards, etc.).	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The condition of the greens is excellent.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The condition of the fairways is excellent.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The course difficulty is appropriate for my level of play.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The attitude of other golfers is friendly.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The course is designed by a well known designer.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The golf pro has helped me improve my game.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The course was recommended by someone I respect.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The restaurant or food service is excellent.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The course has several amenities, such as a pool, tennis courts, etc.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I enjoy shopping at the pro shop.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The practice facilities are excellent.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The maintenance staff was courteous and unobtrusive.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

4. Section E: Emotions Experienced During Your Round at Blackmoor

As we have stated before, these questions pertain to the round of golf you played at Blackmoor Golf Course. When completing this portion of the survey, we ask that you consider the round of golf that you completed on that day. These questions are very similar to questions you were asked before, but this similarity is an important aspect of this study. When responding to these questions, please think back to how the emotions you experienced as a direct result of your round of golf.

8. My round of golf at Blackmoor made me feel:

	Not at all						Strongly
Frustrated	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Nervous	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Depressed	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Optimistic	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Happy	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Excited	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Scared	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Embarrassed	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Envious	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Calm	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Contented	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Surprised	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Angry	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Worried	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Encouraged	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Pleased	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Thrilled	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Afraid	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Ashamed	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Lonely	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Amazed	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Peaceful	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Fulfilled	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Unfulfilled	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Tense	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Miserable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Panicky	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Hopeful	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Joyful	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Enthusiastic	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Astonished	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Guilty	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Irritated	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Discontented	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Humiliated	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Jealous	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Homesick	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

5. Section F: Satisfaction With Your Golf Experience at Blackmoor

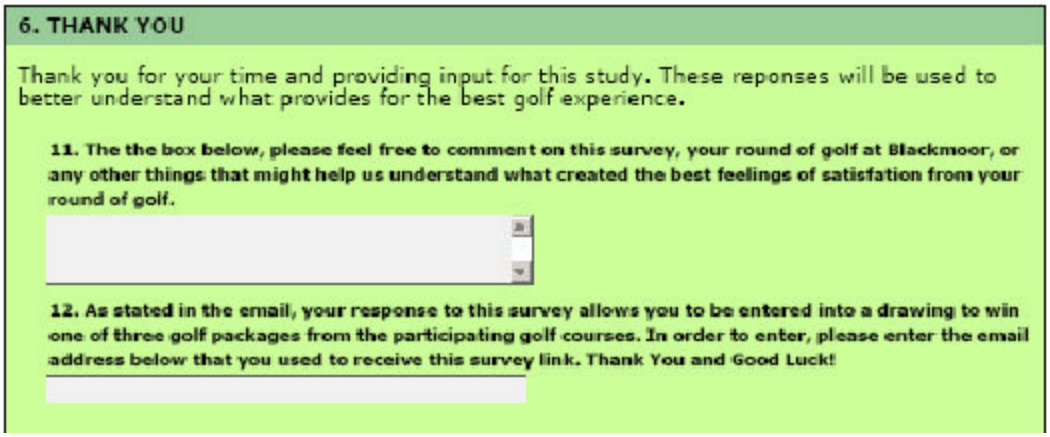
These questions are very similar to questions you were asked before, but this similarity is an important aspect of this study. When responding to these questions, please think back to your the satisfaction that you experienced as a direct result of your round of golf.

9. Think back to your round of golf at Blackmoor...
Please rate your satisfaction with your round of golf at Blackmoor.

	Very Dissatisfied						Very Satisfied
.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

10. Please rate you level of pleasure experienced during your round of golf at Blackmoor.

	Very Displeased						Very Pleased
.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○


6. THANK YOU
Thank you for your time and providing input for this study. These reponses will be used to better understand what provides for the best golf experience.
11. The the box below, please feel free to comment on this survey, your round of golf at Blackmoor, or any other things that might help us understand what created the best feelings of satisfation from your round of golf.
12. As stated in the email, your response to this survey allows you to be entered into a drawing to win one of three golf packages from the participating golf courses. In order to enter, please enter the email address below that you used to receive this survey link. Thank You and Good Luck!

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